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Each chapter of this yearbook is written by a different member of the writing committee, whose chairman, Horton C. Southworth, headed the Commission on Internships appointed in 1965 to study the teacher internship concept theoretically and report the nature of its implications across the nation. Part 1 on structure and strategies of internships includes 11 chapters: The Teacher Education Internship in Historical Perspective; A Conceptual Model of the Internship in Professional Training; Organizational Patterns: Experimentation and Research; Integration of Theory and Practice in Internship; Changing Teacher Behavior: Objective of Internship; The Supervision of Intern Teachers; Role Analysis Applied to Internship Processes; The Professional Components for Elementary School Intern Teachers; The Content of Internships: Student Experiences and Program Design in Secondary Programs; Resources for Internship; Developing Teacher Behavior in Clinical Settings. Part 2 reports results of the Commission's 1967 survey which revealed the existence of 51 internship programs functioning within the Commission's definition. Results of the questionnaire, sent to 733 members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, are reported, and summaries are presented of 13 representative programs and of interns' reactions to programs. Included is a 98-item annotated bibliography on Internships in Teacher Education. (JS)

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INTERNSHIPS
IN
TEACHER EDUCATION

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FORTY-SEVENTH YEARBOOK
1968

THE ASSOCIATION FOR STUDENT TEACHING

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Richard E. Collier, *Executive Secretary*
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Foreword

There is ever greater concern about teacher education in America. Increasing signs of revolution in our cities prompt the public and its educators to consider the nature, quality, and direction of teacher education in 1968.

The Association for Student Teaching, through its Executive Committee, created a commission in 1965 to investigate the internship concept in teacher education. The Commission on Internships was charged with studying the concept theoretically and reporting the nature of its implementation across the nation.

The Commission has conducted discussion meetings at each National AST Conference since 1965 and sponsored the summer workshop of 1967 at Kingston, Rhode Island. A survey of member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) revealed the existence in 1967 of fifty-one internship programs functioning within the Commission's definition.

This yearbook has been prepared for the AST membership and interested teacher educators. For some readers the content will be too prescriptive; for others, completely unrealistic. The Commission urges that the reader consider internship as an integral part of the professionalization of teaching. It proposes a definition of internship which has implications for planners of teacher education programs for the 1970's.

HORTON C. SOUTHWORTH
Chairman

Preface

In 1942 the Association for Student Teaching published a monograph by Florence Stratemeyer, entitled *The Internship as an Integral Part of Teacher Education.* At that time Professor Stratemeyer wrote:

> . . . the work in directed teaching should be followed by a period of internship during which there is provision for professional adjustment service closely coordinated with the needs of the student and his preservice education.[1]

Now, a quarter of a century later, the Association, in its 1968 Yearbook, reaffirms its support for the internship experience.

This yearbook was written by people who are deeply committed to and involved in internship programs. They do not attempt a comprehensive account of all types and forms of internships, but they do write clearly and convincingly of a limited number of trend-setting programs. They do not confine themselves to descriptions of current programs and practices, however. They include both a theoretical conceptualization and an historical review of the development of internships.

The reader will find in this volume an enthusiastic treatment of many aspects of the theme. The internship is presented as a most effective and essential element in the education of a teacher. Future experience and experimentation undoubtedly will provide the basis for the systematic assessment and careful evaluation so necessary to continued advances in teacher education.

DOROTHY M. McGEOCH
Yearbook Editor

The final production and distribution of this yearbook were the responsibility of Richard E. Collier, Executive Secretary, AST, and Linda Booth, Administrative Assistant, AST. The technical editing was handled by Geraldine Pershing, an NEA staff member.

---

[1] Stratemeyer, Florence. *The Internship as an Integral Part of Teacher Education.* Lock Haven, Pa.: the Association, November 1942. p. 8.

Definition of Internships in Teacher Education

AST COMMISSION ON INTERNSHIPS IN
TEACHER EDUCATION

Adopted February 18, 1967
Chicago, Illinois

The internship in teacher education is an integral part of the professional preparation of the teacher candidate, having been preceded by successful observation-participation and student teaching or equivalent clinical experiences in a school environment, and is planned and coordinated by the teacher education institution in cooperation with one or more school systems. The intern is contracted by and paid by a local school board, assigned a carefully planned teaching load for a school year, and enrolled in college courses that parallel his professional experience. The intern is supervised both by a highly competent teacher who is recognized for his supervisory capacity and is assigned released time to devote to the supervision of interns and by a college supervisor who makes a series of observations and works closely with the school supervisor and the intern.

Part One

INTERNSHIPS: STRUCTURES AND STRATEGIES

CHAPTER I

The Teacher Education Internship in Historical Perspective

Contrary to popular belief, the internship in teacher education is not a recent development. The roots of internship in the United States can be traced back to the nineteenth century. The growing number and variety of programs during the last ten to fifteen years have created the false impression that the internship is a recent innovation.

This recent and rapid development has resulted in a loss of both historical and contemporary perspective. As Shaplin stated in discussing this concern:

> A bewildering variety of designs appears as each program lays claim to its own uniqueness. There is little consciousness that the idea of internship has had a long history in American education or that significant patterns of internship are emerging at the present time.[1]

It is the purpose of this chapter to provide an historical overview of the development of internships in teacher education through a brief description of major types of programs; their underlying purposes, principles, and philosophy; and an emerging definition during three periods in the United States.

INTERNSHIPS 1900-1930

The first recognized internship in teacher education was established at Brown University in Rhode Island in 1909. Within this program, some of the graduates in teacher education were placed in the Providence Public Schools for one full year as half-time, salaried teachers under the close supervision of a professor of education and a supervising teacher. They were also required to complete a specified amount of course work at the University during their internship.[2]

Bases for Development

The Brown University program created the basic design of most current five-year internships in secondary education. It was based upon five underlying principles established by the National Society of College Teachers of Education, as follows:

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[1] Shaplin, Judson T., and Powell, Arthur G. "A Comparison of Internship Programs." *Journal of Teacher Education.* 15: 175; June 1964.

[2] Brown, John F. *The Training of Teachers.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1911. p. 242.

1. Serve as a professional laboratory facility for observation and participation by prospective teachers.
2. Conduct research and experimentation in child growth and development and in the use of instructional materials and teaching procedures.
3. Test and demonstrate forward-looking school practices.
4. Enrich the program of graduate studies in education.
5. Exercise leadership in in-service education programs for teachers.[3]

These principles emerged from a developing philosophy of teacher education that expressed a necessity for providing the teacher candidate with an opportunity to test educational theory through practice in the classroom. Stabler reports that until the last two decades of the nineteenth century the theory underlying secondary teacher preparation had been dominated by the academic tradition that was inherited from Europe and permeated the Latin Grammar School of the Colonial period.[4] Within this tradition, the major function of the teacher education institution was to train the teacher's mind by making certain that he learned a given body of knowledge.[5]

However, by the turn of the century, a movement to include professional training as a part of a secondary teacher's education was gaining support and momentum. These new concepts were part of a larger educational movement. John Dewey and E. L. Thorndike attacked the formality and rigidity in education as well as the basic underlying assumptions of faculty psychology. Enrollment in secondary schools grew in numbers, and educators began to view citizenship, health, and vocational education as acceptable goals. The task of the teacher thus became more complex and strengthened the argument that he needed much more than academic preparation to teach effectively.[6]

This developing and changing philosophy was supported by the development of the normal school for the preparation of elementary teachers, with a strong focus on providing practical experience. As early as the 1860's several normal schools were in operation and the value of student teaching (referred to as practice teaching) had been well established. The establishment of the Oswego (N.Y.) Normal School in 1861 greatly influenced the direction of teacher education. The Pestolozzian method was introduced in this school on a grand scale for all educators to view. Pestalozzianism stressed the *method* of teaching; and when method assumed greater importance, student teaching took on added significance. This emphasis on the value of providing the teacher candidate with experience in the method of teaching resulted in a need to provide additional types and amounts of preservice professional laboratory experiences for both elementary and secondary teachers.

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[3] Jacobs, W. B. *Practice Teaching at Brown University.* A Pamphlet of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1909. p. 533.

[4] Stabler, Ernest. "The Master of Arts in Teaching Idea." *Educational Record* 41: 224-29; July 1960.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 224.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 226.

Representative Programs

In an effort to provide the potential teacher with additional professional clinical experiences, the University of Cincinnati established an internship program in 1919, in cooperation with the Cincinnati, Ohio, Public Schools, for both elementary and secondary teachers. All of the participants were required to complete a four-year curriculum, including education courses, and either a B.S. or B.A. degree before they were admitted to the program. Those who were admitted were assigned to classrooms in the public schools as half-time, salaried teachers. They remained under the supervision of the University and continued their course work. Normally, they received the B.A. at the end of the fourth year and the B.Ed. at the end of the fifth. Only students with a high scholastic index were admitted to the program.

Interestingly enough, many of the problems cited by the administrators of this program are similar to those in evidence today. Limitations of the Cincinnati program included the following: (a) The fifth-year student must carry a very heavy academic program. (b) It is almost impossible for most school systems to provide the necessary close and careful supervision. (c) Any appreciable expansion of the program would be impossible without large funds, the involvement of many cooperating schools, and a large group of highly competent supervisors.[7]

Other types of internships were established during the first two decades as an extension of the normal school program. In 1904, the Fitchburg Normal School developed a program extending the two-year normal course to four years. During the third year, highly selected students were assigned as regular elementary teachers in cooperating schools. These students received a salary and were under the control and supervision of the normal school staff.[8]

By the end of the second decade, other teacher education programs of a similar type were established in Boston, Cleveland, Minneapolis, Seattle, Buffalo, and Gary. Although they varied greatly in response to local conditions, all were characterized by the provision of increased supervision for beginning teachers during their first year of employment.[9, 10] Also, all of these programs manifested the growing belief that theory is truly meaningful only through practice in real situations. By the late twenties, internships were considered a vital part of preparation programs for all of the professions. However, due to a shortage of teachers, it was often not feasible to establish internships requiring an additional year of preservice education.[11]

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[7] Hall-Quest, Alfred. "The Cincinnati Plan of Teacher Training." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 129-41; March 1924.

[8] Spaulding, Frank E. *School Superintendent in Action.* Rindge, N.H.: Richard R. Smith, Publisher, 1955. p. 320.

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 495-501.

[10] Jones, Howard R.; Cress, Carl; and Carley, Verna A. "Descriptions of Internship Programs." *Twenty-First Annual Session of the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 23 and 24, 1941.* Normal, Ill.: the Association (J. W. Carrington, Secretary-Treasurer), 1941. pp. 31-40.

INTERNSHIPS 1930-1940

Economic conditions during the early thirties created an environment that was much more conducive to the establishment of effective internships. Little money was available to support public education, school expansion diminished, and teacher turnover decreased substantially, resulting in a teacher surplus. School districts were employing fewer beginning teachers and became increasingly more selective.

As a result, many teacher education institutions were unable to guarantee their graduates teaching positions and were under pressure to create ways of placing them in schools so that they would have at least a meager income. They were able to raise their standards, lengthen their programs, and become extremely selective.

The local public schools also became selective in recruiting teachers. In some cases, schools employed certified beginning teachers as interns or assistants without salary, maintaining that they were providing the teacher with desirable training. These schools might then offer the interns a regular teaching position the following year. Many beginning teachers accepted such an offer because it provided a possible avenue to employment.

Underlying Philosophy and Principles

This era was also characterized by a maturation of the Progressive Movement that encompassed the belief that "learning by doing" is most effective and that a vital part of any professional education program is the provision of clinical experience wherein the candidate can fuse theory into practice.

Within this social context of economic scarcity, teacher surplus, and Progressive philosophy, many types of internships in teacher education thrived. Although there was a large variety of internships, most of these programs were established within the same philosophical framework and manifested similar goals, characteristics, and activities. In a comprehensive study of twenty-one programs in 1940, Howard Jones found almost unanimous agreement among directors of the programs and thirty-one leaders in teacher education regarding the following major functions of internships:

1. To secure integration of theory and practice in the professional education of teachers.
2. To insure that the beginning teacher secures his first year's experience in a school situation conducive to professional growth.

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[11] Richardson, W. L. "Suggestions for Teacher Training Obtained from a Study of Medical Internship." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 9: 314; May 1923.

3. To provide a scheme of teacher induction in which there is adequate and competent supervision at the time of induction.
4. To provide a program of professional preparation of teachers in which learning is based upon doing.
5. To permit gradual induction into the work of teaching.[12]

In this study, Jones also specified six principles which leading teacher educators believed ought to be characteristic of internship and which were operative in over 60 percent of the programs studied. The principles are as follows:

1. Internship should be considered part of the basic preparation and training of the beginning teacher.
2. During the period of internship, the intern should engage in the large variety of activities in which a regular teacher engages.
3. The internship plan should include a cooperating teacher-training institution in which interns carry on correlated graduate work during their period of internship.
4. The period of internship should be at least a year in length.
5. Basic courses in professional education, including student teaching, should be completed prior to entrance into internship.
6. The internship should be in a school situation approximating as closely as possible the type of school situation in which the intern will probably receive permanent appointment.[13]

It is interesting to note that the underlying guiding principles that appear in current literature describing contemporary internships in teacher education were well defined by the end of the third decade. This is especially true of the principles regarding integration of theory and practice, gradual induction into teaching, correlated course work, length of the internship, and student teaching as a prerequisite to internship.[14]

A major change in the developing concept of internship in the thirties was a focus on this type of professional laboratory experience as in-service rather than preservice education. This is clearly reflected in a statement of definition of internship by a leading educator of that era:

> The intern teacher is a person who has received his degree from an accredited four-year college and is employed in the school system with a small

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[12] Jones, Howard R. "Principles and Practices in Internships." *Twenty-First Annual Session of the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 23 and 24, 1941.* Normal, Ill.: the Association (J. W. Carrington, Secretary-Treasurer), 1941. pp. 31-40.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[14] For statements of guiding principles developed through other studies, see: Stratemeyer, Florence. *The Internship as an Integral Part of Teacher Education.* Lock Haven, Pa.: National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, November 1942. pp. 3-8: and Cress, Carl. "Teacher Internship Programs in Public Schools." *Twenty-First Annual Session of the National Association of Student Teaching, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 23 and 24, 1941.* Normal, Ill.: the Association (J. W. Carrington, Secretary-Treasurer), 1941. pp. 7-18.

> salary for a stated period of time until he has acquainted himself with the philosophy, methods and operation of the program of a particular school system.[15]

As Shaplin aptly stated, "The internships of the thirties sought, with few exceptions, to make better beginning teachers of already certified college graduates."[16]

Representative Programs

Although each of these internships was characterized by its own unique features, it is possible to group them into four major types of programs on the basis of the kind of sponsoring institution: (a) a public school system, (b) a city school system in cooperation with a municipal teacher education institution, (c) a university or college, or (d) an independent teacher education institution.[17]

Internships sponsored by a public school system. In literature published just prior to World War II, thirty-nine programs sponsored by a public school system were identified. In a description of representative programs at Grosse Pointe, Michigan; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; and Seattle, Washington, similarities and differences were in evidence. All required that the interns hold the bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate, provided for a gradual induction into teaching, paid the interns a regular salary based on the beginning teacher's salary and in proportion to the amount of teacher load assumed, and sponsored a program for one full year. Differences existed in method of supervision and type and quality of related instruction provided the intern. Those enrolled in the Grosse Pointe program were supervised by cooperating teachers, the principal, and by the director of instruction. They were required to carry up to 12 hours of graduate work either at Wayne State University or the University of Michigan. They were also required to participate in an organized program of related readings, seminars, research, and visitation to schools, public offices, social service agencies, and factories in Grosse Pointe and the Detroit area.

Interns enrolled in the program sponsored by the Oklahoma City Public Schools were supervised by the principal, master teachers, and members of the regular supervisory staff. Special courses were offered by the school system and taught by the superintendent and intern supervisors. At least thirty-six credits were earned during the year of internship.[18]

The teacher interns participating in the Seattle program were often referred to as cadets. They were supervised by the principal and a cadet supervisor who was assigned to work full time with eight cadets. Although each intern received continuous tutorial services, no organized instruction was provided.[19]

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[15] Cress, *ibid.*, p. 7.

[16] Shaplin and Powell, *op. cit.*, p. 177.

[17] Jones, Cress, and Carley, *op. cit.*, pp. 31-40.

[18] *Ibid.*, pp. 32-33.

Internships sponsored cooperatively by a municipal school system and college or university. At least three programs sponsored by a city school system in cooperation with a municipal teacher education institution were in operation, in Chicago, Cincinnati, and Detroit. Interns enrolled in the Chicago program spent half-days in the Chicago Public Schools for one semester, without salary, following two semesters of graduate work at the Chicago Teachers College. They were given increasing responsibility during the internship to provide for a gradual induction into teaching and were enrolled in related seminars and special methods courses. Tuition was paid to the Chicago Teachers College.

The internship sponsored at Cincinnati was very similar except for the length of internship, type of supervision, and financial arrangements. The interns spent half-days in the public schools for one year, were supervised by cooperating teachers, and received $400 a year in salary.

The program sponsored by Wayne State University and the Detroit Public Schools was organized for graduates or undergraduates of other colleges who wished to qualify for teaching in the Detroit Public Schools. The period of internship was a minimum of one semester, and the interns were supervised by persons who were employed jointly by Wayne State University and the public schools. They enrolled in related course work, paid tuition, and received no salary.[20]

A major objective of each of these three internships was to recruit teachers from a highly selected group of college undergraduates. The economic conditions manifested during the 1930's greatly facilitated the achievement of this objective.

Internships sponsored by a college or university. A third type of program, an internship sponsored by a college or university, was in evidence at eight institutions during this era. Northwestern University led in the development of a highly effective internship; most contemporary fifth-year internships are largely patterned after the Northwestern program. The internship was part of a graduate program leading to the master's degree which included a year of internship and two summer sessions, one preceding and the other following the internship period. Only superior students who had successfully completed student teaching and were found acceptable by local school authorities were admitted to the program. Provisions were made for a gradual induction into teaching, joint supervision by the University and cooperating school, related seminar work, and a salary of not less than $500 for the year of internship.[21]

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[19] *Ibid.*, pp. 31-40.

[20] *Ibid.*, pp. 33-35.

[21] *Ibid.*, pp. 36-38.

Stanford University offered a similar program, but the internship was for a period of only one academic quarter and the interns received no salary.[22] Other colleges and universities sponsoring internship programs included Brown University; New York University; Teachers College, Columbia University; the University of Illinois; the University of Pennsylvania; and Western Maryland College.

Internships sponsored by private institutions. Internships sponsored by private teacher education institutions, such as the Graduate Teachers College of Winnetka, the Cooperative School for Teachers in New York City, and the Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Massachusetts, were similar in pattern to those sponsored by universities. However, the interns received no salary during the internship period.[23]

Implications for Improvement

As a result of considerable experience with a number of internships during the period 1930-1940, basic patterns began to emerge and areas of concern and needed improvement were identified.[24] It became apparent that (a) there should be a contractual agreement between the intern and the sponsoring or cooperating school; (b) the intern should have status comparable to the regular teachers relative to staff, pupil, and community relations; (c) the intern should receive a salary during the internship sufficient to cover minimum living expenses; (d) the length of internship should be determined on the basis of progress made by the intern rather than an arbitrary length of time; and (e) graduate credit should be given for the successful completion of the internship.

Many leading educators were encouraged by the progress made during the 1930's in establishing effective internships and were optimistic about the future development of the internship as an integral part of most teacher education programs. Florence Stratemeyer reflected this optimism in a nationally circulated publication:

> . . . the work in directed teaching should be followed by a period of internship during which there is provision for professional adjustment service closely coordinated with the needs of the student and his preservice education.[25]

INTERNSHIPS 1940-1967

However, economic and social conditions changed markedly with the advent of World War II. Once again there existed a serious teacher shortage, and problems of national defense and basic economic production loomed as critical issues.

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[22] *Ibid.*, p. 38.

[23] *Ibid.*, pp. 38-40.

[24] *Ibid.*, pp. 27-30.

[25] Stratemeyer, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

During the first ten years of this period, there was little interest in developing internships in teacher education.[26] This was especially true of secondary education programs, which had not changed significantly despite the efforts of leading educators and the apparent effectiveness of the internships developed during the 1930's. Bishop's study of the internship, reported in 1948, revealed that at that time only fifty-nine colleges and universities provided programs.[27] Without large supplementary funds or a surplus of teachers, there was little hope of establishing the internship throughout the country as a vital and required part of teacher preparation programs.

However, by 1950, many teachers colleges were making a real effort to implement a series of innovations such as prestudent teaching laboratory experiences and other recommendations outlined in the 1948 Flowers' report.[28]

Also, by this time, the full impact of the vast social and technological changes of the era was reflected in the schools. The knowledge and population explosions, as well as rapid developments in science and technology and their application to teaching, created the need for radical modification of existing teacher education programs. The successful teacher was a highly competent decision-maker who could readily analyze professional situations, diagnose the learning potential of children and youth, and provide an instructional program appropriate to the individual for whom the instruction was intended. Demands were also made for more flexible teachers who could readily create and work in new situations—in areas such as team teaching, nongraded instruction, and instruction utilizing all types of audiovisual equipment and devices developed by new technology. Obviously, beginning teachers who had received their professional preparation in traditional teacher education programs were at a clear disadvantage.

The Graduate Internship

The lack of significant changes in secondary teacher education, the problems encountered by professional neophytes, and the demands of social and scientific change, together with a severe teacher shortage, had a much greater impact on program modification than the other factors. Most of the new programs were developed during a ten-year period, beginning in the mid-1950's, and required five or more years for completion, including a period of paid internship.

For the most part, these programs were established with the assistance of external financial aid. In a study sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education, Harap reported that "the chief sources of external direct aid were the Federal

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[26] Stiles, Lindley J., and others. *Teacher Education in the United States.* New York: Ronald Press Co., 1960. p. 323.

[27] Bishop, Clifford L. "The Organization of Internships for Teachers." *School Review* 56: 536-47; November 1948.

[28] Subcommittee of the Standards and Surveys Committee. *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education.* Oneonta, N.Y.: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948.

Government, State agencies, foundations, philanthropic organizations, and business institutes."[29] He further stated that during the 1959-60 academic year, 462 participating institutions offered 1,976 fifth-year teacher education programs, including 49 that provided an internship as a vital part of the program.[30]

The Master of Arts in Teaching. The MAT program was one type of fifth-year teacher education program that was designed to recruit teachers in secondary education and to improve the preparation of teachers. The MAT probably was, as Paul Woodring stated, "the first program for high school teachers that rests upon some clear-cut assumptions about high school teaching as distinct from both elementary and college teaching. Those who designed the program rejected the college-teacher theory that academic scholarship is the only essential for teachers. They also rejected the teachers-college view that a program for secondary teachers should be similar to that for elementary teachers, but with a little more emphasis on the major."[31]

A major objective of these programs was implied in the brochure and other literature defining the selection criteria: to recruit the student of superior ability who has had little or no professional preparation, a strong liberal arts background, and an academic area in which he plans to teach.

In general, the MAT programs required four years of some kind of liberal studies from a *good* (prestigious) college, with a strong academic major, plus a fifth year consisting in part of professional courses or seminars and an internship and in part of academic specialization at the graduate level. In some of the programs, courses in educational psychology or educational philosophy were available during the junior or senior year but were taught as liberal subjects. In other words, this type of program implied that the teacher ought to be a liberally educated person with a scholarly knowledge of a subject area *before* he begins his professional studies. This practice rejected the theory that a gradual induction into teaching should be provided through a program of clinical experiences during each phase of the teacher education program.

Other graduate internships. A few internship programs, unlike the MAT pattern, were designed primarily to extend the professional laboratory experiences during which the teacher candidate could assume greater professional responsibility than during student teaching. Within this arrangement the student was provided an extended, supervised practice period during which he could apply and test theoretical insights.

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[29] Harap, Henry. *Fifth-Year Programs of Classroom Teacher Education: A Digest of the Survey Report.* Teacher Education Series, OE-58007. Washington, D.C.: Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, July 1962. p. 3.

[30] *Ibid.*, pp. 2-7.

[31] Woodring, Paul. "The Need for a Unifying Theory of Teacher Education." *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal.* (Edited by Elmer R. Smith.) New York: Harper and Row, 1962. pp. 147-48.

In most internships of this era leading to a master's degree, including the MAT, a general pattern existed in terms of the number of credits to be earned and the length of the total experience. But within this general pattern, a very wide variety of experiences was provided. Most of the programs consisted of two summers and an intervening academic year beyond the bachelor's degree, with the internship included during part or all of the academic year.

During the first summer, any one or a combination of the following courses and professional experiences was included during the beginning phase of the fifth-year internship: (a) orientation to teaching and the internship operation; (b) observation-participation in a demonstration summer school; (c) from three to nine credits in an academic teaching area; (d) from three to nine credits in professional education courses; (e) observation-participation-student teaching in a summer school program (in only a few of the programs reviewed); (f) observation-participation, with no student teaching, in a university laboratory school; or (g) very limited student teaching. A few of the institutions providing professional laboratory experiences also held a weekly seminar designed to relate theory and classroom experiences. The first phase of the programs varied in length from one or two weeks to a full summer semester.

During the following academic year, in most of the programs studied, the student was placed in a local public school for one semester of a full year as an intern teacher. In most cases, he had a reduced teaching load of from one-half to four-fifths that of a full-time teacher. In a few teacher education programs the intern taught only one hour a day during the first of a four-semester internship. The intern received a salary proportionate to the beginning teacher's salary paid by the local public school or a supporting foundation. Supervision of interns was provided by persons in a variety of positions in the local public schools: teachers, administrators, regular supervisors, or specialists (in a minimum of cases) who had received special preparation in supervision. In a few cases, those responsible for supervision were granted free time to assume this responsibility. The sponsoring teacher education institution also provided supervision of interns, but often only a minimum number of visits were made to the schools where interns were assigned.

During the second summer of enrollment, following the internship, the student normally completed the requirements for a master's degree or a teaching credential, or both. This usually required the completion of from 6 to 12 credit hours in the student's major academic area or in professional education.

The Undergraduate Internship

A second type of internship in teacher education was established in the latter part of the 1950's: a four- to five-year sequence leading to a teaching credential and a bachelor's degree. One variation, developed by Central Michigan University, provided three years of alternate teaching and study experiences after a two-year base of general education. Each student on the program spent one semester as an intern (teacher assistant) during his junior year at the University, one semester as a teacher extern in his senior year, and one semester as a teacher associate in his fifth year. In each instance, a school system employed him for a defined, load-bearing position which was appropriate to his level of experience. As a first-term intern, he filled a position which involved many of the clerical and other nonteaching tasks within a school, and he earned 50 percent of a beginning teacher's salary. As a second-term intern, he began to assume some of the teaching functions under the direct supervision of the cooperating teacher and earned 65 percent of a beginning teacher's salary. As a third-term intern, he taught on a reduced-load basis and received 80 percent of a beginning teacher's salary. The student was required to take his three experiences in at least two different school systems and was encouraged to arrange his program so that a semester of study on campus alternated with a semester as a teacher intern.

Another undergraduate program, the Elementary Internship Program, was developed by Michigan State University. The first two years consisted of study in the liberal arts areas, followed by a ten-week summer session consisting of courses largely in the arts and sciences. During three-quarters of the third calendar year, the student resided in an off-campus internship center where elementary school methods and sociological, psychological, and philosophical foundations of education were integrated with observation-participation and student teaching in the local public schools. The following summer session was spent in study of course work in the liberal arts areas at the East Lansing campus. During the fourth calendar year, the student taught as an intern teacher at a salary of approximately $3500 a year and was closely supervised by both a university supervisor and an intern consultant employed full time to supervise interns. Another variation was developed by Colorado State College in cooperation with the Greeley School District. Under this program, college seniors chose to work for half-days for a school year at a contracted sum of $500. The other half-day was spent on campus completing the required course work. Students who pursued this program were not required to register for student teaching.

A third type of program was developed at the University of Wisconsin as part of the Wisconsin Improvement Program. An intern at Wisconsin was either a graduate or an undergraduate. The intern spent a full semester as an intern-in-team in a cooperating school where he was assigned approximately one-half a teaching load and received a salary of $1200. This program replaced student teaching and no prior professional laboratory experiences were required. The intern enrolled in the same professional courses as the student teacher.

AN APPRAISAL OF INTERNSHIPS

The wide variety of internship programs, in terms of course offerings, course sequence and organization, professional experiences provided, and method of administration, has implications for an appraisal of various internship patterns and for consideration of problems and issues raised by these approaches to teacher education.

Beginning in 1960, special efforts were made to evaluate the internship, especially the five-year programs supported by the Ford Foundation. Intensive studies were made of program characteristics and patterns, as well as reports of observations by those directing or working closely with internships.

In a paper prepared for delivery at a National TEPS Conference, Shaplin and Powell[32] outlined several interesting and significant characteristics of most fifth-year teacher education internships developed after 1950, including the following: (a) The intern has greater responsibility when he is teaching, but has less professional preparation for intern teaching. (b) The intern spends less time teaching due to heavy course load. (c) The internship is not a sequel to professional preparation; it is the very essence of the preparation. (d) The internship is an alternative to traditional teacher education, not its culmination. (e) The programs apparently are based on the academic structure of the college and the nature of its relationship with the local schools. These generalizations were especially pertinent to five-year programs that included little or no professional laboratory experience prior to the internship period.

Several areas of improvement of internships developed after 1950 were outlined in a 1965 report of six regional seminars in the United States. These seminars were sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education to discuss and evaluate a sample of fifth-year and MAT programs. Twenty-four programs were studied and discussed at great length. A report was made of each regional seminar, including an editorial estimate of the seminar by the Office of Education representative, a reporter's summary of the discussion, and a brief description of each internship program. The composite report of this study clearly implied the need for (a) improved communications between the university and cooperating schools; (b) specialized preparation for school supervisors of interns; (c) greater acceptance of responsibility by schools for providing supervision of interns and financial support of teacher education programs; (d) curriculum revision, especially in the MAT programs, to achieve a greater integration of theory and practice; and (e) a comprehensive evaluation of the internship experience through a program of research.[33]

The Development of a Unifying Theory

These implied weaknesses and the existence of a great diversity of internship programs clearly indicated the need for the development of a unifying theory of teacher education that would encompass those programs with an internship. Diversity and variety in program design as a manifestation of adequate flexibility were desirable attributes, especially when the need for program innovation was great. However, many teacher education institutions had been experimenting with internships for ten years or more. By 1965, there was a need for stability and program improvement to establish a basic framework within which effective internships in teacher education could be established and alternative and innovative methods, procedures, and practices could be utilized in the interest of program improvement. It was to this end that the Commission on Internships in Teacher Education of the Association for Student Teaching was established.[34]

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[32] Shaplin and Powell, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

[33] Whitelaw, John B. *The Potentialities of the Paid Teaching Internship.* Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, October 1965.

IN SUMMARY

Although a large number and variety of internships in teacher education were established after 1950, the concept of the internship has had a long history in American education. The development of internships in education can be divided into three eras: 1900-1930, 1930-1940, and 1940-1967.

During each of these periods, social and economic conditions and teacher supply had a tremendous effect on the design and apparent effectiveness of internships in teacher education. During the first period, 1900-1930, the American economy began to flourish, the secondary school enrollment grew in numbers, and the curriculum was greatly expanded. These conditions led to a severe teacher shortage and the establishment of the internship as a vital part of the *preservice* education of teachers. Because of the teacher shortage, the intern received a salary for his services and the cooperating schools provided strong support for the programs.

During the second period of development, 1930-1940, little money was available to support public education, school expansion diminished, and teacher turnover decreased markedly, resulting in a large teacher surplus and the development of the internship as a required phase of the *in-service* education of beginning teachers. Due to the surplus of teachers, the public schools became extremely selective in recruiting beginning interns who often received no remuneration for their services.

By the beginning of the third era, 1940-1967, economic and social conditions had changed considerably. Americans were concerned primarily with increasing basic production and establishing and maintaining a strong program of national defense. A population explosion, major wars, and the continuous threat of other conflicts throughout the world, as well as the race to conquer space, resulted in vast social and technological changes. Teacher education programs were not modified accordingly.

By 1955, however, these new conditions were reflected in the elementary and secondary schools and clearly defined the effective teacher as one who could make sound decisions in a variety of professional situations. He was also competent in providing instruction appropriate to individuals as well as the total group, and in utilizing all types of instructional devices developed by the new technology. There was an obvious need to provide the teacher candidate with more clinical experiences in the classroom. There was also, once again, a critical shortage of teachers.

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[34] *Cf. ante,* p. xi, for "Definition of Internships in Teacher Education." Adopted by the AST Commission on Internships in Teacher Education, February 1967.

To prepare the type of teachers needed and to combat the severe teacher shortage, a large number and variety of internships were developed as an important phase of the *preservice* education of teachers—as was true during the first era in the development of internships in the United States.

Although a wide variety of programs was established, most of them had at least two common characteristics the internship was part of a program leading to the attainment of a teaching certificate and a degree, and the intern received a salary for his services. A large number of the internships established during this period received financial aid from a governmental agency or a private foundation. Many had as a primary objective the recruitment of liberal arts graduates with little or no undergraduate preparation in education rather than the improvement of teacher effectiveness by providing additional, well-integrated professional laboratory experience.

By 1965, the need for program evaluation and modification was apparent. In many of the fifth-year and MAT programs there was a lack of effective communication between the sponsoring university and cooperating schools, ineffective supervision of interns, a lack of adequate financial support for this type of teacher education program, and failure to design programs that provided for a gradual induction into teaching and that conceived of the internship as an integral and vital part of the total teacher education program. There was a need for the development of a unifying theory of teacher education within which internships could be evaluated and modified. It is to be hoped that an historical overview of the development of internships in teacher education will facilitate the establishment of such a theory.

CHAPTER II

A Conceptual Model of the Internship in Professional Training

Education, as have other professions, has experienced cycles of development in the pattern, sequence, and content of programs designed to produce professional practitioners. It has been noted that the extent and quality of training seems to evolve through a series of stages as an occupation progresses from a skilled trade or craft to the full status of a profession.[1]

All of the established professions began as crafts which offered training through apprentice-preceptor arrangements. As knowledge relevant to craft practice accumulated and as the demand for practitioners increased, "proprietary," or private preparatory, schools emerged. Here, a retired or pedagogically inclined practitioner gathered professional aspirants who read and heard about professional practice but had little contact with clients or patients. Later, the recognition of standards and the need for legitimate support of established institutions of higher education brought about affiliation with colleges and universities where schools of medicine, law, engineering, architecture, and education became a part of the campus scene. A further developmental stage became apparent when professional groups and educators recognized the need for a blended set of experiences in the preparation of the competent professional. At this developmental level, concerted effort was made to integrate substantive knowledge appropriate for practice, clinical experience for teaching method and technique, and practicing experience, such as the internship, as a means of bringing knowledge, technique, and operational behavior into a single education package.

THE INTERNSHIP IN THE PROFESSIONS

Medicine is the only profession which has utilized the internship with any degree of consistency over a long period of time. Consequently, most of the support, as well as some of the critical reserve, which attaches to the internship stems from the record established in the training of physicians. Within medical education there is little evidence that the internship, as an isolated and unique experience, has ever been studied or analyzed with reference to its unique educational value. It is viewed rather globally as a part of an integrated series of experiences all of which are equated, without discrimination, to the complete education of the physician.

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[1] McGrath, Earl J. *Liberal Education in the Professions.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Professions other than medicine have frequently been handicapped in implementing or experimenting with the internship concept as a part of university training due to lack of proper facilities for establishing and maintaining well-directed internship programs. A particular setting which requires a concentration of professional service seems to be the most desirable and manageable scene for the internship. Hospitals and clinics serve medicine excellently in this respect. Law offices, architectural firms, and industrial concerns are less manageable and adaptable centers and thereby do not encourage the implementation of internships in legal, architectural, and engineering education. Education does not suffer such a handicap. The public schools and laboratory schools are excellent settings for intern programs.

Frequently, well-meaning members of a profession are reluctant to support internship programs because they feel that the idea represents a return to the apprenticeship phase of development from which the profession may have only recently emerged.[2] This is unfortunate, because there are dramatic differences between *apprenticeships* and *internships.* Failure to recognize these differences often closes the mind to the appropriate merits of both training techniques.

An *apprentice* can learn all he needs to know about his chosen trade or craft by spending an appropriate amount of time progressing through the various stages of "how to do" the job. Through this experience he ultimately moves from the position of novice to the position of craftsman. Apprenticeship is, therefore, an appropriate means for training in the semiskilled and skilled trades. It is not an appropriate method for training professionals.

In contrast, the *intern,* who aspires to ultimate professional practice, must have accumulated a body of substantive knowledge, must have acquired specific skills, and must have developed at least a degree of technique before he is even considered eligible to function in the internship. There is, in effect, an identifiable plan and period of preparation for an internship.

Education need not be sensitive about internship as a means for training teachers. Teacher training moved past the apprenticeship stage before the decline of the normal school. We need not fear that internship will denigrate either professional image or professional product in the preparation of teachers.

Some of the prominent "angels"—the wealthy funds, foundations, and government agencies which encourage educational innovation—have supported the internship as a "new" method for training teachers. The example of redesign in medical education is drawn upon heavily, and reference seems to begin at the point where medical training was first revitalized. The Flexner report[3] is cited frequently, and such citations are justified in supporting the case for improved professional training and preparation. Flexner's efforts and perceptions were the spark which brought startling changes in medical education shortly after the turn of the century. The medical internship—a return to contact with patients in a practicing situation—was one of many significant suggestions which were offered by Flexner in his analysis of medical education in 1910. Extended use, and misuse, of the internship in medicine has created the major body of opinion available. Unfortunately this is mostly opinion and it lacks pedagogical verity, because those who have studied and reacted to the internship in medicine have been more interested in the total preparation of the physician than in the analysis of a particular educational technique.

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[2] Kandel, I. L. "An Experiment or a Revival?" *School and Society* 76: 75; August 2, 1952.

[3] Flexner, Abraham. *Medical Education in the United States and Canada.* Bulletin No. 4. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1910.

Internship and its educational potential have stimulated little serious investigation since the publication of the Flexner report. The American Medical Association has appointed commissions and committees on hospitals and medical education. The internship has known its share of notoriety as a concept in that it has been investigated, abused, attacked, and derided for injustices and inequities which have occurred through improper management and planning. No significant study has gone beyond gathering opinions about internships, defining purposes for internships, or perhaps identifying and classifying administrative standards for internships.

No one seems to have asked the simple questions: *What happens to a person when he becomes an intern? and What unique learning opportunities become available to a person who reaches the intern stage of professional preparation?* Once we ask these questions and find no answers, it becomes apparent that no intensive research has been conducted with reference to internship because no hypothesis, no body of theory, no conceptual schemes, or models of internship seem to exist. Recognizing this set of conditions seems adequate justification for the development of a conceptual model which accounts for the learning potential resident in an internship. In order to construct such a model, it is desirable to provide a definition of internship around which conceptual structures can be woven.[4]

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL INTERNSHIP

An internship is a learning experience provided for selected and specially prepared individuals who aspire to become professional practitioners. It is an experience of "reality" in which the knowledge, the skills, and the judgment of the intern are put into play in solving the problems which characterize professional practice. These problems are selective with regard to the professional field and the level of practice, but their frequency and order of occurrence follow the random pattern normal to the standard setting for practice.

The internship should be recognized as but one part of a series of learning experiences which are provided for professional aspirants. It follows other units of experience, each of which is intended to prepare the individual for successful completion of the learning stages which follow.

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[4] Rex, Ronald G. *A Theory of the Internship in Professional Training.* Educational Dissertation Series No. 7. East Lansing: College of Education, Michigan State University, 1964.

The internship is normally a terminal experience. It is the one which immediately precedes the granting of full professional status to the candidate. As such, it offers opportunities for learning which are somewhat unique. It should, therefore, have purposes which are different from other phases of professional training. Once purposes are identified, the internship should be analyzed and evaluated with reference to its intended aims.

Evaluation of Internship

As a terminal experience, the internship runs the risk of being evaluated unrealistically or inaccurately if a "cumulative set" is applied in assessing it. Literally, this means that earlier phases of preparatory training should not become crucial evaluation items in determining the efficacy of an internship experience. A candidate who indicates strong substantive preparation, excellent laboratory technique, and fine professional judgment in practice should not be cited as supporting evidence for the value of internship experience unless the candidate also shows effective gains in acquiring those professional characteristics or behavior patterns which are recognized as being uniquely attached to the experience. By the same token, poor preparation in any of the preliminary experiences should not be used as a criterion for judging the internship as ineffective or undesirable. Total performance of the excellently prepared intern and the poorly prepared intern will become an issue at the point where the decision to grant full professional status is to be made.

Performance in the internship for each candidate will probably be commensurate with individual performances in previous experiences; the strong will come out stronger and the weak will continue to indicate weakness. Assessments of candidates in internship should, however, always be couched in terms of the purposes and the learning potential involved in the experience itself. In other words, the internship should be viewed as a means for providing a certain kind and quality of training, and it should be evaluated only in reference to success or failure in accomplishing these ends.

Professional Training

Certain characteristics are common to all of the established professions. These characteristics, once identified, serve as indices of need which should be met in training. Each of the currently accepted professions is built around a funded body of knowledge which has, in a sense, served as a core around which the profession has come into being and continued to develop. Command of this body of knowledge makes it possible for individuals to use knowledge in the solution of problems which are met in practice. It serves in helping to make the decisions and take the actions which are considered the responsibility of the professional practitioner. Each profession is actively engaged in adding to its store of funded knowledge. In so doing, it advances the frontiers of professional function so that more and better services are offered to the constituency supporting the profession. Each profession has associated with it a cluster of services and skills which identify the operational role of the practitioner. There is inherent in service and skill a set of principles and procedures which are communicable and transmittable through training and practice.

As a normal outcome of his training and experience, the practicing professional is expected to deal with situations and solve problems which transcend the capabilities of the average man. This is his calling and this is his work. Therefore, he must be knowledgeable, operationally competent, and professionally sophisticated if he is to do adequately what society expects him to do.

Each of these three qualities needed in professional practice requires a slightly different kind and range of training experience. Programs designed for the education of those entering the various professions generally account for acquisition of substantive knowledge, for development of skills and techniques, and for acquisition of experience in clinical practice settings. These are all parts of the whole cloth of training.

Functions of Internship

The internship should be an experience which provides face-to-face contact with the realities of practice. For teachers it should be a full-fledged decision-making, instructing, and strategy-designing assignment which carries the full weight of professional function. There should be some avenue of recourse, some source of assistance and counsel, to supplement the intern's limited experience and unpracticed judgment. This should come to the intern through his mentor, whomever or whatever he may be.

The internship should be a final "test run" for teachers. It is but one of a series of related experiences which are intended to bring the intern from a condition of native conception concerning the range of professional function to that of qualified and competent professional practitioner. Internship is not the only clinical or laboratory experience which needs to be provided. Some orientation and preparation needs to be offered in an earlier stage of training. Student teaching, as we presently know it, is such an experience. Student teaching, preceded by a planned and segmented series of microteaching experiences, should lead the student to a point of preparation adequate for the demands of internship.

Since an intern will have studied the substantive disciplines and the technical areas appropriate to his field, it is assumed that he will bring to the assignment a degree of technical competence which has been assessed and used in determining his eligibility for internship. Throughout the experience it is assumed that this competency will continue to develop, perhaps revealing facets of real "polish." But this is not the only aim of the internship. Notably more important are the values and the *perceptions of professional function* which the incumbent will carry from the internship into regular practice.

One of the most neglected areas of formal and institutionalized training is that facet of the learning process which focuses upon the individual's *personal identification* with something to be learned or mastered. The intrinsic changes which take place in learning are slighted in favor of the extrinsic and overt manifestations of learning. Response and performance rather than attitude and molar perception are measured and equated with learning and competence. In earlier phases of training, these response and performance measures are adequate indicators of readiness for internship. But when one becomes an intern, he should be concerned about identifying himself with the problems of professional practice. The experience should be conducive to this kind of identification; it should, in fact, be a continuous process of identification.

Professional practice consists of (a) an individual functioning in a setting where he will meet (b) a constituent public (c) for the purpose of providing services which are not readily available outside the profession. It appears that these factors should be considered in attempting to recognize the identification potential inherent in the internship.

Using these three factors as referents, it becomes possible to structure three dimensions of identification which may be afforded an intern. First, there is a dimension of SELF-awareness in which the individual can measure his personal attributes against the demands and opportunities of professional performance. Second, there is a dimension of ROLE in which the individual can develop perceptions of himself as a practitioner relating to clients. Third, there is a dimension of COMMUNITY, used here with reference to the *professional community* of which he hopes to become a part.

Each of these three dimensions of personal identification is in turn composed of elements which apply to the conditions of the internship and to the purposes of professional training. A conceptual model (Table 1) identifies the elements which seem to relate most appropriately to the SELF, ROLE, and COMMUNITY identifications of the internship.

THE DIMENSION OF SELF

The dimension of self is that series of internal assessments which appear to be natural for an individual undergoing a new learning experience. In the internship, it is assumed that these assessments will be made with reference to professional practice and will result from the intern's involvement with the random occurrence of problems which characterize practice.

Personal capacity for performing the tasks expected of a professional involves the substantive knowledge, the methodology, and the skills utilized in practice. The intern finds himself, for the first time, in a position where this knowledge, this methodology, and these skills are to be called upon and

TABLE I

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE INTERNSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

SELF	*ROLE*	*COMMUNITY*
Personal capacity	Generalized expectation	Ethical standards
Aspiration level	Self-other perception	Rights-obligations
Tendency toward specialization	Situation analysis	Authority-autonomy
Professional commitment	Specific expectation	Professional limitations

utilized at his own discretion. Furthermore, the total effect of this exercised discretion will be measured against the outcome of the professional action which ensues. Formation of an adequate concept of one's capacities and abilities is essential to meeting the demands imposed by professional practice. It would seem that the internship should provide this opportunity better than any experience offered at earlier stages of training.

Level of aspiration represents the awareness one develops concerning the range and quality of performance possible in professional practice. A series of unvoiced questions may best illustrate the frame of reference around which the intern builds a structure to which he can aspire:

> How good (expert) do I want to become as a practitioner?
> How far (high) do I want to go in professional practice?
> By what standards will I judge my efforts in practice?
> With whom shall I compare my performance?

The internship does not represent the point at which an individual first asks these questions of himself, and it is certainly not the point at which final answers occur. It does, however, serve as a point at which answers may begin to form which are based on actual performance rather than upon naive desire or other forms of unrequited motivation.

All professions tend to fragment and to exhibit a tendency toward specialization. This is due, in part, to an expanding accumulation of professional knowledge and technique. It is also promoted by the professional's realization that his competency and performance will be sharpened if he develops unique skills and concentrates his effort within certain restricted areas of practice. The intern will have opportunity to assess his capacity, his interest, and his bent for specialization. He may see these as bases for directing his future professional growth and development. Contact with a variety of practicing specialists should broaden his insights concerning extension of personal goals. Beyond this, he will have learned more about the role of practicing specialists as consulting and referral agents available for the solution of unusual problems met in practice.

Commitment at the internship level represents a deepening test for the individual, a test for his aptitudes and inclinations under conditions of practice. Commitment prior to internship has been measured primarily in terms of completing courses, acquiring skills, and developing attitudes deemed desirable for professional practice. In other words, commitment has been assumed through satisfactory completion of courses and continued desire to remain in a program. This represents a commitment different from that which is tested by the rigors of practice.

It is apparent that, in the internship, commitment will become more directly related to the system of demands and rewards which apply in the everyday experience of the practicing professional. For the first time, the intern will be assessing himself in relation to his apparent effectiveness as a practitioner. Success or failure with constituents and with professional problems will serve as indices by which he will measure his own progress. True commitment can develop only when the individual assumes primary responsibility for his own assessment rather than having it initiated and directed by others, as is the case in formal educational experiences which precede the internship.

THE DIMENSION OF ROLES[5]

The dimension of role becomes significant in the intern experience because it is here, in a setting of interaction, that the intern discovers how he will adjust to a status and a position. His clues will come not only from his actions but from the concurrent and reciprocal actions of others.

The common questions which occur to all neophytes begin to be answered in the internship:

> How do I *behave* as a professional?
> How do I make decisions?
> What are the limits of action which I shall observe as a professional?

Generalized expectation of role represents the loosely defined image which the public holds for particular professions. It reflects the unanalyzed stereotype of professional function which does little more than account for what the practitioner "does." It does not account for how he does it, why he does it, or even what becomes involved in the doing. It is a very detached and impersonal view of practitioners, which is not even sufficient in defining what "*my* doctor" or "*my* lawyer" or "*my* teacher" does in working for me. Nevertheless, it is the point at which the unsophisticated public begins to form impressions and expectations of professionals. Practitioners must be cognizant of this gross expectation, but they must go far beyond it if they are to act and decide in keeping with the full range of performance for which they are trained. An intern will learn, early in his experience, the public importance as well as the functional insufficiency of generalized expectation.

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[5] The terminology and the theoretical base for this discussion of role is drawn from work in the field of sociology.

Self-other perception is an inevitable perceptual element afforded the intern. At this level of training he becomes aware of the effect he has on those with whom he comes in contact. These contacts involve both clients and colleagues. Probably more important will be his developing feeling for the effect these persons have on him as a practitioner. As a practitioner he will begin to lose sight of himself as a distinct individual and will see himself as an agent of process and action. Development of professional objectivity begins at this point, and it must continue to grow as the intern moves toward professional maturity. Without this objectivity the professional will personalize all of the problems of practice and probably become totally ineffective. Objectivity should not be construed as callousness or unconcern but rather as a capacity to observe, to act, to make decisions in keeping with the professional needs of the client. The whole study of human relations pivots on this significant element of role.

Situation analysis is an element equally important in accounting for successful professional practice. Where we have discussed the human or personal aspects of role, we must also consider the time and place aspects of professional service. Most professional practice is conducted under certain forms of procedure which reflect good taste both for the practitioner and the client. There is a rather standardized place in which practice in the various professions is expected to occur: the hospital or clinic or physician's office, the law office or courtroom, and the classroom. There are times during which one might expect to obtain professional service or consultation more readily than at other times. All professional function does not adhere rigidly to these time and place prescriptions, and all canons of practice are not inviolably attached to dispensation of service. A situation itself may dictate procedure and form which is different from or which runs counter to that which would normally be expected. In fact, sound professional decision-making may be contingent upon the practitioner's ability to analyze a situation and act appropriately. An intern will, by observation and practice, begin to develop this "sense of situation" so necessary in accounting for effective professional function.

Having developed an adequate awareness of generalized expectation, self-other perception, and self-analysis, the intern is now ready to perceive and practice in reference to *specific expectation*. This is really an expectation which he must hold for himself. It may also be held by his mentors and professional colleagues. It will be influenced by his perception of the expectations which are held by his clients. It is a product of interaction and it is derived from the intern's composite impressions of all factors relevant to the situation at hand. For this reason it is a singularly sophisticated expectation which will be limited only by the perceptual capacities of the intern himself.

The intern will learn, in practice, that his actions and his decisions are affected by these factors but that neither prescribed form nor procedure will account in all cases for actions or decisions he must initiate. He will learn to look at each situation, at himself, and at the client involved. He will use form and procedure as rough guides, and from these he will fashion a course of professional action derived from the host of alternatives which exist in each case.

THE DIMENSION OF COMMUNITY

The term *community* is used here with reference to a common human tendency to seek a "place" or "affiliation." Everyone needs this orientation for each of the several communities of which he is a part. But we are concerned with the professional community to which an intern aspires, so our reference will focus on those elements which seem to be uniquely professional in nature and uniquely attached to the practicing experience in the internship.

A profession is built around a set of values and customs which not only defines but also directs professional action. There is a feeling of belonging to a profession—a sense of professional unity. It appears that an intern might acquire this feeling by way of perceiving some of the essential elements.

An *ethical code* should represent a synthesis, or a crystallization, of long professional experience. It should account, in gross terms, for the contingencies practitioners might be expected to face. It should prescribe in loose terms actions which should take place in situations where dishonest, insincere, or incompetent services might be sought.

Interns and inexperienced practitioners will benefit from following an ethical code rather closely until experience, professional competency, and judgment develop as a better base for decision making. This does not mean that the code is ultimately forgotten but rather that, having depended upon the code heavily in the beginning, the maturing practitioner will allow it to become a built-in part of his mode of operation rather than a rigid and unquestioned prescription of performance.

The intern will soon learn through intimate contact with the conditions of practice that any code is very general in nature and subject to rather loose interpretation. He will find a need for a more comprehensive support for his actions.

Rights and obligations are elements of community identification which must be perceived by the practitioner. He must become aware of the rights which he assumes as a professional person and he must know the obligations which are attached to those rights. His actions, his decisions, and his professional effectiveness will be affected by a developing sense in this area. His maturing perception of these will be more frequently drawn upon than will the ethical code upon which he depended as a neophyte.

The intern will discover that he has assumed an expert status in relation to practice. With this status will go the responsibility or obligation for using it wisely and effectively in the solution of professional problems.

Authority and autonomy. Once the practitioner is faced with a decision-making situation, and by obligation is bound to carry through a professional action, he finds that he has considerable autonomy among alternatives. Each selection, however, must be supported by some form of authority.

The intern will learn about sources of authority. They may stem from his training, his experience, the standards of ethical practice, the law, or even sound individual judgment which probably combines elements of all of these. Nevertheless, they must be selected and, at least to the practitioner, they must be identifiable. They must be compatible with the action they support.

Beyond the limits of supportable professional action we find the final element of community identification—*professional limitations.* All professional practice is embedded in uncertainty. It is this uncertainty or unpredictability which separates the profession from the trade or the craft.

The professional man is trained and conditioned to deal rationally and objectively with uncertainty. However, in each professional enterprise there are certain limits beyond which the most experienced or competent practitioner cannot go. Recognition of professional limitations is a perceptual opportunity for the intern. Prior to internship, the aspiring professional lacks a clearly formed concept of the limits of practice. Both in terms of generalized limitations applying to practitioners as a class, and specific limitations as they apply in the case of the individual practitioner, the recognition of limitations marks the boundary beyond which the responsible professional will not go. He must refer his case to a more competent practitioner, a more highly trained specialist, or to the consultation of more experienced professional colleagues.

The intern experience appears to be the first point at which all of these significant elements of professionalism become firsthand realities for professionals in training. Prior to internship they may be taught and, to a degree, understood. But these realities have not, up to this point, been *lived* through direct experience.

Purposes of the Model

Recognizing that none of the perceptions described here are begun exclusively in the internship, and tacitly admitting that none of these perceptions should cease to develop with the termination of training, this conceptual structure or model is offered for testing in internship programs. The model is a set of assumptions. It is logically implied and supported in part by empirical evidence. But it needs to be tested in order to be verified or refuted, and that is the next and as yet incomplete step.

Such a conceptual model of internship can serve three significant purposes with reference to its utility in teacher education. First, the conceptual framework can serve as a guide in designing intern programs which will make it possible for interns to emerge with the identification perceptions suggested in the model. Second, the framework can serve as a guide in designing research instruments and procedures which will, in effect, determine whether these identification perceptions are being realized by interns. Such research might also identify other perceptions or effects not included in the model. Third, once determined, those identification perceptions which are, in fact, present and evident in the performance of interns can become significant parts of the total evaluation procedure in teacher candidate assessment. The identification dimensions and the elements of which they are composed can be assessed by the strength or weakness of individual performance. Weights can be assigned to each element in the model, and the cumulative score for a particular candidate can serve as a useful index of readiness for professional practice. What has far too long been judged on the basis of intuitive opinion may begin to emerge as judgments derived from substantial and visible criteria. We may eventually arrive at the point where we can identify the potentially good professional, using better instruments of objective measure. If we can identify "the good professional," we may be approaching that majestic impossibility–identifying "the good teacher."

CHAPTER III

Organizational Patterns: Experimentation and Research

Interest in programs of internship teaching has increased sharply during the past decade. In Chapter I of this yearbook the historical development of teaching internships has been traced and the essential features of programs currently in operation have been noted. It is the purpose of this chapter to review briefly the significant research on internship teaching which has been reported during the more than sixty years in which such programs have been part of the teacher education scene.

Prior to 1940, the literature on internship teaching was sparse and concerned with providing descriptions of individual program features or operational details. The reports of Spaulding,[1] Pechstein,[2] Hall-Quest,[3] Day,[4] and Beatty[5] provide examples of these attempts to identify and describe the efforts then being made to establish internship programs.

EARLY STUDIES

The first attempt to investigate the nature of internship teaching appears to be the survey conducted by Jones, in 1940.[6] Also containing an excellent review of the early development and growth of intern teaching programs, this survey provides us with an accurate picture of internship teaching at the time. Brink used the questionnaire-survey approach with former interns in his study of factors responsible for the establishment of the Northwestern University program.[7] The findings of this study indicated that intern teachers tended to possess strong qualities of leadership. A report of an early attempt to provide internship teaching at New York University was published in 1942 by Thompson.[8] In the same year, Harvey investigated the extent to which programs of intern teaching had been established in the United States, with particular focus upon the program then being developed at the University of Illinois.[9]

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[1] Spaulding, Frank. *School Superintendent in Action.* Rindge, N.H.: Richard R. Smith, Publisher, 1955.

[2] Pechstein, L. A. "The Cooperative Ideal in Teacher Training—The Cincinnati Plan." *School and Society* 8: 270-71; September 8, 1923.

[3] Hall-Quest, Alfred L. "The Cincinnati Plan of Teacher Training." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 129-41; March 1924.

[4] Day, L. C. "South Portland Apprentice Teacher-Training Plan." *American School Board Journal* 86: 16-17; February 1933.

[5] Beatty, Willard W. "An Auspicious Plan of Assistant Teaching." *School Review* 42: 640-41; November 1934.

[6] Jones, Howard R. "Internship in Teacher Education." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) New Haven, Conn.: Yale University, 1940.

[7] Brink, William G. "Internship Teaching in the Professional Education of Teachers." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 23: 89-94; February 1937.

In a study of internships at the secondary school level, Stiles, in 1946, found such programs in about one out of four of the institutions surveyed, although virtually all of these colleges and universities indicated that they felt they should be providing such experiences.[10] In a similar survey, conducted in 1958 by Bishop to determine the purposes of internship programs, it was pointed out that internships were being regarded as an important way to achieve a close integration of theory and practice in programs of teacher education.[11] A subsequent survey by Bishop showed that institutions varied widely with respect to the nature and extent of intern supervision provided. In a majority of cases the supervision was provided by the college; however, the findings showed that such an arrangement was considered desirable by virtually all (97 percent) of the fifty-nine institutions studied.[12]

As interest in internship teaching heightened in the post-World War II period, investigations into various aspects of intern teaching began to appear with greater frequency in the literature. For the most part, these tended to be surveys of opinion or reactions to the idea of intern teaching. Much of the material written about internship teaching was also devoted to describing individual program features and operational details. Results of experimental investigations of internship teaching have been at a minimum, and the few which have been reported are related to evaluations of programs developed since 1940.

The programs of internship teaching which have been developed throughout the nation appear to have taken two different forms. One type of internship, characteristically a feature of what are referred to as fifth-year programs, attempts to provide those who have completed a baccalaureate degree with a one-year teacher education course terminating in provisional certification and, in some cases, a master's degree. A different form of internship is provided under the continuous five-year plan. Referred to by Harap as the "systematic five-year program," it is a preplanned sequence of academic and professional education experiences which extends over a continuous five-year period and culminates in the awarding of a bachelor of arts degree and recommendation for regular teacher certification.[13] The development of internships in fifth-year programs will be reviewed first.

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[8] Thompson, Glenn S. "The Development of an Internship Program." *Teacher Education Journal* 4: 63; September 1942.

[9] Harvey, C. C. "Internship in the Professional Education of Teachers." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 28: 375-81; May 1942.

[10] Stiles, Lindley J. "Internships for Prospective High School Teachers Being Trained in Universities." *Journal of Educational Research* 39: 665; May 1946.

[11] Bishop, Clifford L. "The Purposes of Teacher Internships." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 34: 35-43; 1948.

[12] Bishop, Clifford L. "The Supervision of Teacher Internship." *Educational Research Bulletin* 27: 125-32; May 1948.

FIFTH-YEAR INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS

The idea of providing necessary professional preparation for teaching through a one-year course coming after completion of an undergraduate degree was a feature of the very first internship programs developed. Over the years, experimentation with these fifth-year internship programs has brought about the development of distinct programs of postbaccalaureate teacher education: the Intensive Teacher-Training Program, the California certification plan, and the Master of Arts in Teaching program.

Intensive Teacher-Training Program

The first of these, the Intensive Teacher-Training Program (ITTP), was established by the State of New York during the period 1945-1949 as an attempt to relieve the extreme shortage of elementary school teachers. The ITTP provided a form of internship teaching under which graduates of a liberal arts curriculum without previous course work in education attended an intensive six-week summer program after which they were granted an emergency teaching certificate and employed as full-time teachers. Subsequent additional course work taken on a part-time basis enabled the graduates to fulfill requirements for a regular teaching certificate.

Beecher, in 1950, compared teachers prepared under the ITTP with a group who were already certified. Using the principal's ratings of teacher effectiveness as the criterion of success, Beecher found the regularly certified teachers to be more effective.[14] In a later study of ITTP teachers, Rogers attempted to determine whether it was possible, in the six weeks of the summer program, to build desirable professional attitudes concerning children and teaching. Using the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, administered on the first and last days of the session, Rogers found statistically significant differences between administrations and concluded that the ITTP appeared to be reasonably successful in its attempt to build desirable attitudes in teacher candidates.[15]

A study conducted in 1960 by Magrath compared the teaching effectiveness of 109 teachers prepared under an Intensive Teacher-Training Program with that of 136 teachers who had graduated from a typical teacher education program. He studied Connecticut elementary school teachers, prepared under a program which differed only slightly from the programs offered in New York State. Using the principal's ratings of teacher success as his criterion, Magrath found that, while the regularly trained teachers received higher ratings, the differences between ratings for the two groups of teachers were not significant.[16]

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[13] Harap, Henry. *The Teaching Internship Program.* Teacher Education Series, OE 58004. Washington, D.C.: Division of Higher Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, November 1961.

[14] Beecher, Dwight E. *The Intensive Teacher Training Program—An Evaluation of Results.* Albany: Division of Research, New York State Department of Education, 1950.

[15] Rogers, Vincent, and Smith, James. "Professional Attitudes of Students in an Intensive Teacher-Training Program." *Elementary School Journal* 57: 100-101; November 1956.

A similar investigation of New York State elementary school teachers was conducted in 1961 by Gittler. Comparing 59 teachers prepared under the ITTP with a similar number who had received their training in typical teacher education programs, Gittler found that the two groups did not differ significantly in their mean scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory or in ratings assigned to them by their principals.[17] Lupone also studied elementary school teachers in the State of New York who had been prepared under contrasting forms of teacher education. Using a sample consisting of 120 provisionally certified (ITTP) teachers with 120 teachers who were permanently certified, Lupone reported that the teachers of the latter group were rated significantly higher by their principals in such aspects of teaching performance as planning, preparation, management, subject matter presentation, instructional skill, pupil-teacher rapport, and pupil evaluation. No significant differences were noted for the two groups of teachers with respect to the areas of human relations and parent-teacher relations.[18]

Halliwell has made a penetrating and careful assessment of the various experimental studies of intensive teacher-training programs. His summary is worth noting here:

> In view of the findings and limitations of the effectiveness of teachers trained in intensive teacher-training programs and regular undergraduate programs, it would appear that there is a genuine need for adequately designed, longitudinal, experimental studies of the efficacy of "experimental" programs for elementary school teachers.[19]

California Plan

The California plan of internship teaching differs from the intensive training programs in the provision of student teaching prior to the internship and in the granting of a Pilot Program Credential at the conclusion of the period of internship training. Beginning in 1955, as experimental projects with the help of foundation grants, intern programs of this nature were established as graduate programs designed for those already possessing the baccalaureate or higher degree. The California plan consisted of three phases which provided for the gradual induction of the intern into teaching: a beginning phase providing student teaching experiences, a middle phase in which the intern was placed in a position of major responsibility for a classroom as an employee of the school district on a contractual basis, and the final phase in which the intern completed course requirements leading to certification.[20] Using a questionnaire survey, the Committee on the Teaching Internship of the California Council on Teacher Education in 1957 evaluated the existing programs in terms of previously established guidelines. The results demonstrated a wide diversity among the twenty-five internship programs. Noteworthy was the statement that fewer than half of these programs were actually providing student teaching as called for in Phase One of the internship program.[21] Descriptions of these programs have been reported by Miner,[22] Fisher,[23] Melbo,[24] Smith,[25] Bush,[26] and Stone.[27]

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[16] Magrath, George. "An Evaluation of Teachers Trained Under the Intensive Program for College Graduates." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Storrs: University of Connecticut, 1960.

[17] Gittler, Steven. "Professional Characteristics of Elementary School Teachers from an ITTP and a Bachelor's Degree Program." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Buffalo, N.Y.: University of Buffalo, 1961.

[18] Lupone, Orlando J. "A Comparison of Provisionally Certified Elementary School Teachers and Permanently Certified Elementary School Teachers in Selected School Districts in the State of New York." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Jamaica, N.Y.: St. John's University, 1960.

[19] Halliwell, Joseph W. "A Review of the Research Comparing the Teacher Effectiveness of Elementary School Teachers Prepared in Intensive Teacher-Training Programs and in Regular Undergraduate Programs." *Journal of Teacher Education* 15: 192; June 1964.

Master's Degree Program

The Master of Arts in Teaching programs provide a fifth-year, preservice teacher education program for graduates of liberal arts colleges which includes professional education courses, academic specialization, and a paid internship experience. The master's degree internships derive their name from the fact that they tend to emphasize the completion of degree requirements rather than the securing of certification. Two principal variations may be noted in the pattern of MAT programs currently in operation. The first pattern involves a preparatory summer followed by a full academic year, one semester of which is devoted to full-time teaching under supervision. The Harvard internship plan described by Keppel, Shaplin, and Robinson[28] provides an example of this pattern. Under this plan, two graduate student interns are employed in place of one beginning teacher, with the interns then alternating in teaching under supervision for one semester. A variation of this plan provides for interns to teach for half-days for the entire year, with the remaining time spent in completing academic and professional courses required for the master's degree. During the summer preceding the internship, the interns are enrolled in a six-week summer session which includes observation, participation, and student teaching experiences.

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[20] California Teachers Association, Commission on Teacher Education. *Teacher Education Projects in California.* Burlingame: the Association, 1955.

[21] Blackmore, Dorothy S.; Sowards, G. W.; and Robinson, Clark, editors. *The Place of Internship Programs in Teacher Education.* California Council on Teacher Education, Committee on Teaching Internship. Bulletin. Vol. 29, No. 9. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1960.

[22] Miner, George D. "A Teacher Interne Program." *School Executive* 74: 48-49; September 1954.

[23] Fisher, J. Sherrick, and Frautschy, Frances. "San Diego Intern Teachers." *NEA Journal* 46: 244-54; April 1957.

[24] Melbo, I. R., and Calvert, Leonard. "The Southern California High School Specialist-Teacher Program—A New Two-Year Graduate Preparation." *High School Journal* 5: 164-67; February 1960.

[25] Smith, Hamlin; Cronin, Joseph; and Laurits, James. "Symposium—Preparing Teachers for the Next Decade." *Journal of Secondary Education* 36: 224-30; April 1961.

[26] Bush, Robert N., and Allen, Dwight W. "The Winds of Freedom." *High School Journal* 5: 168-73; February 1960.

[27] Stone, James C. "Fall Conference of the California Council on Teacher Education." *California Schools* 28: 162-79; April 1957.

A second pattern of master's degree internship programs involves two summer sessions separated by one full year in which the candidate spends one-half of his time in supervised internship teaching and the other half completing academic and professional courses. The MAT program offered by Northwestern University provides an example of this pattern. The program, which combines graduate study and paid employment as a classroom teacher, requires the intern to complete professional education courses and student teaching during the first summer session, thus enabling him to obtain provisional teacher certification for the coming year. During the academic year the intern usually carries two graduate courses each quarter and receives additional credit toward certification for the internship experience. The second summer session is used to complete remaining graduate work, following which the master of arts in teaching degree is awarded.[29]

Ryan[30] studied the initial problems encountered by interns in the Stanford University program. Using attitude questionnaires, case studies, classroom observations, and conferences with the interns, supervising teachers, and pupils, data were collected to determine the relation of the intern's upper-middle-class background and history of high academic achievement to his attitudes toward pupils and teaching. The results indicated that the interns were "sociological strangers" to their students, lacking seriously in their understanding of the students' culture and tending generally to hold unrealistic expectations of their students' ability and life goals. Ryan attributes this discrepancy to the great social distance which he feels exists between the socioeconomic culture of the intern and his pupils.

FIVE-YEAR INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS

A number of colleges and universities have reported the operation of teacher education programs designed for students who are committed to a plan of five continuous years of preparation for classroom teaching. Harap and McKie[31] identified thirty-one programs specifically designed for students in five-year programs. This survey, reported in 1961, covered such aspects of internship programs as the continuity of the program, the teaching levels, requirements for completion of the program, curriculum patterns, and the sequence of education courses. According to Harap and McKie's study, the institutions providing five-year programs were largely (74 percent) concentrated in states which required an unbroken sequence of five years or deferred fifth-year preparation for teacher certification. While designed for all teaching levels, nearly 70 percent of the programs were for potential secondary school teachers, and, in most (77 percent) of these programs, the major function was one of preparing students to qualify for the state teaching certificate. It is also interesting to note that professional education courses most frequently began in the junior year, with student teaching typically associated with the final year.

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[28] Keppel, Francis; Shaplin, Judson T.; and Robinson, Wade M. "Recent Developments at the Harvard Graduate School of Education." *High School Journal* 5: 242-61; February 1960.

[29] Northwestern University. *Master of Arts in Teaching Program.* Evanston, Ill.: School of Education, Northwestern University, 1967.

[30] Ryan, Kevin. "The Teaching Intern—A Sociological Stranger." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 195-97; Summer 1966.

School-College Cooperation

Nash, Hanes, and Harding[32] summarized the experimental teacher education program begun at Central Michigan University in 1959 in which interns spent five years earning a bachelor's degree and teacher certification. Under this plan the first two years were devoted to completing liberal arts courses, with each of the remaining three years being divided into alternate semesters of off-campus teaching and college course work on-campus. For each of the three off-campus semesters an intern was considered a full-time paid employee of the cooperating school. Also writing on the Central Michigan University program, Sleeper[33] identified the five-year program as a means of establishing a school-university partnership on a large scale.

A similar type of five-year program for internship teaching was reported by Walsh[34] in which provision was made for utilizing the personnel and the facilities of a local junior college, of the elementary schools in a selected city (usually the site of the junior college), and of a nearby college or university. By the fall of 1959, Walsh states that Central Michigan University, Michigan State University, and Western Michigan University were cooperating with local community colleges in establishing five-year internship programs.

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[31] Harap, Henry, and McKie, Laura Lou. *Systematic Five-Year Programs of Teacher Education.* Teacher Education Series, OE-58002. Washington, D.C.: Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, n.d.

[32] Nash, Curtis; Hanes, Roy C.; and Harding, Alice Currie. "They Lead Two Lives." *NEA Journal* 54: 12-14; May 1965.

[33] Sleeper, William R. "The Internship." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 71-74.

[34] Walsh, William J. "Internship in Relation to Community Colleges." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools, ibid.*, pp. 81-85.

The Student Teacher Education Project (STEP) was established in 1959 at Michigan State University as a five-year plan of teacher education which included a one-year preinternship and student teaching experience followed by a two-year internship. Corman and Olmstead[35] trace the development of the STEP program from its inception, through its experimental stage, and into its present form as a regular elementary teacher preparation program, the Elementary Intern Program. Corman and Olmstead's study of the 1960 and 1961 STEP classes compared with a random sample of all first-term juniors enrolled in elementary education in the fall of 1960 revealed that, compared to the campus students, the STEP students were less favored economically but were neither more nor less able academically than their campus counterparts.

In a follow-up study, Houston[36] reported in May 1967 that STEP-EIP had graduated 416 interns. Of the 403 included in the follow-up, 373 are still teaching and only 30 are known not to be in teaching. Ninety-three percent are still in teaching after from two to six years of experience. Of these, 80 percent are teaching in Michigan and 57 percent in the same districts where they interned. Based on findings of the study, it was concluded that graduates of EIP have considerably longer teaching tenure than can be expected nationally. No attempt was made to determine the reasons for the staying power.

The Flint Field Cooperative Teacher Training Program is similar in many respects to the type of internships described by Walsh and Corman. This experimental program, which came into being in September 1957 under the joint sponsorship of the Flint Public Schools and Central Michigan University, spreads the traditional four-year teacher education program over a five-year period in order to provide for an earning-learning phase as one of its unique features. Candidates selected to participate in the experimental program take their first two years of basic college work in the Flint Junior College or have the equivalent preparation at another institution. During the last three years the candidates teach full time under supervision of a master teacher and complete college course work on a part-time basis. The master teacher is responsible for the professional growth of from five to seven interns.[37]

An evaluation of the Flint Teacher Training Program in 1959-1960 revealed that pupils of teachers in the five-year training program did as well on Stanford Achievement Tests as did pupils of teachers who were fully certified. In a later, more extensive investigation, Shea[38] compared thirty-five teachers at various stages in the completion of the intern phase of the Flint program with thirty-nine teachers who had completed bachelor's degrees and Michigan certification requirements. Regularly trained teachers in their first year of teaching were compared with those Flint program teachers who were also in their first year of teaching. Second- and third-year teachers in each group were compared in the same manner. Measures of teaching performance, teacher adjustment, and pupil attitude were secured for each of the seventy-four teachers studied. Shea reports that the teachers enrolled under the five-year program of internship teaching did not differ significantly from teachers prepared under typical four-year teacher education programs on any of the above measures. Significant differences in favor of the intern teacher groups were noted for teaching performance scale items which dealt with specific aspects of teaching technique.

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[35] Corman, Bernard, and Olmstead, Ann C. *The Internship in the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1964.

[36] Houston, W. Robert. *A Study of the Teaching Status of Graduates of the Elementary Intern Program at Michigan State University.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1967. (Mimeographed)

[37] Flint Public Schools. *Report on the Experimental Field Cooperative Teacher Training Program in the Flint Public Schools.* Flint, Mich.: Board of Education of the Flint Public Schools, February 1960. (Mimeographed)

Work-Study Plans

The experimental program of the College of Education at New Mexico State University resembles the Flint program in its provision for opportunities to help deserving students finance their own program of teacher education through a related work-study program. Saunders and Roush state that the New Mexico program began in 1965 when forty-three students were admitted as freshmen in a special work-study program which will enable them to complete their bachelor's degree and teaching certificate in four years by alternating semesters of work and study. Teacher education cooperative students enroll for a study phase during the summer session following their selection. For the next eight semesters they alternate study and work phases and attend intervening summer sessions in study phases. In each of the eight semesters, one-half of the students are in a study phase while the other one-half engage in a work phase. While the evaluation to date has been informal and subjective, those in charge of the program feel the plan has sufficient merit to warrant its being continued. Saunders and Roush summarize this feeling in the following statement:

> Perhaps, as the sample is enlarged in succeeding years and the experiences point up a more definite program structure, positive directions may emerge as a major breakthrough for teaching in the form of a career for the able.[39]

Samson and Skellenger[40] have also experimented with a cooperative plan of elementary teacher education. Their program enlisted the support of

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[38] Shea, Joseph J. "An Assessment of an Experimental Elementary Teacher Education Program." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1964.

[39] Saunders, Jack O. L., and Roush, Donald C. "Design and Rationale for an Experienced Beginner in Teaching." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 197; Summer 1966.

[40] Samson, Gordon E., and Skellenger, James B. "Some Practical Aspects of Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 10: 381-83; September 1959.

Fenn College of Cleveland and the Cleveland Board of Education. Under this program, a student completes eleven quarters of academic instruction and eight quarters of employment at the grade level at which he is preparing to teach. The school district pays the intern and supervision is provided. No information was available regarding attempts to evaluate the Fenn College internship experience.

A Team Internship

A experimental undergraduate program of internship teaching has recently been developed by Wayne State University and the Detroit Public Schools. Under this program the features of an internship program and the disadvantages of team teaching are combined. According to Smith[41] this *team internship* attempts to bridge the gap between role playing and role assuming by providing undergraduate teacher candidates with extensive opportunities under a team arrangement to plan jointly but teach independently, to evaluate jointly but reteach on one's own time, and to permit time in the scheduling for conferencing, group planning, teaching and critiquing—all in close cooperation with college and school system supervisors. Designed for student teaching, the team consists of (a) four interns in a team, two assigned to each of two classrooms in close proximity; (b) one teacher-director who is in charge of the two classrooms and the four student interns; and (c) one clinical instructor assigned by the college to each internship unit. The interns, working in pairs, plan the instructional program under the guidance of the teacher-director and the clinical instructor. Interns are present an equivalent of four full days a week for an entire semester, using the remaining time as they wish. Evaluation of the Detroit-Wayne State University team internship has consisted of unannounced visits by public school and college persons to observe each intern in action, formal questionnaires, and individual, tape-recorded interviews. Findings revealed that the interns felt their team internship had been much more valuable than a second student teaching contact probably would have been. They also indicated that the internship was better than and, in one-half of the cases, far exceeded their early expectations of the program. Administrators of the program noted a positive change in faculty attitudes as a result of participating in the team internship. Smith also noted an increase in unsolicited positive feedback from parents, with many specifically requesting that their child be again placed in a team internship classroom at the next opportunity.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

In looking to the future, it appears that programs of internship teaching are destined to play an increasingly greater role in the emerging design of teacher education. These programs will continue to gain in importance and grow in numbers. The availability of federal grants, in addition to the support of foundations, would attract the attention of additional colleges, universities, and school systems. Of greater importance, however, is the fact that the internship has focused the attention of educators on one of the most pressing needs currently facing teacher education: the acceptance by colleges and universities and by schools that each has a stake in the education of teachers and that each must assume appropriate responsibilities in the professional training of teachers. As Clarke has stated:

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[41] Smith, E. Brooks, and others. *Toward Real Teaching: The Team Internship.* Detroit, Mich.: Wayne State University, 1967. (Mimeographed)

> There seems to be little doubt that the concern of teacher education in the next decade will be centered primarily upon problems arising from the emerging partnership of colleges and public schools in the preparation of teachers.[42]

Because the teaching internship is based upon just such a relationship, it should play a vital role in the future development of teacher education programs.

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[42] Clarke, Elmer. "Introduction." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. p. iii.

CHAPTER IV

Integration of Theory and Practice in Internship

Like a constant thread through the descriptions of internship programs, both graduate and undergraduate, elementary and secondary, runs the theme that their strength lies in their ability to integrate theory and practice. The assumption here, of course, is that the close association of theory about the teaching-learning process and its application in a real, not a contrived, classroom setting is desirable and good. On that assumption, therefore, rests the claim internship programs make: that interns have an opportunity to experience reality in their teaching along with their study of theory, an opportunity which students in regular programs rarely seem to have, certainly not to the degree expressed in the reports quoted below.

Just as a child, in order to learn to read, must bring some meaning to the printed page, so the teacher candidate must bring some experience to his courses in curriculum and methods in order for them to have a high degree of relevance for him. One of the things we have learned most dramatically from the recent emphasis on teaching the culturally deprived is that experiential deprivation is a potent factor in failure to learn. This vital ingredient, we submit, is just as essential at the college level as it is in the elementary school.

The reports analyzed in this chapter substantiate the belief that the educators who have fostered the growth of internships are keenly aware of the importance of experience in making theory meaningful to the teacher candidate. The reports reveal, moreover, that the writers are also clearly aware of the significance of the beginner's having an understanding and knowledge of educational theory in order for him to become professionally competent.

It is my conviction that since generalizations grow from a series of experiences rather than the other way around, teacher education should apply such sound principles of learning theory to its own operation. Most teacher education has always been conceptualized as *preparation* followed by *practice*. Internship, on the other hand, is conceived as a total experience involving both the preparation and the practice—concurrently, simultaneously, and interdependently.

SURVEY OF INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS

This chapter is based upon an analysis of fourteen elementary and secondary internship programs operated by colleges and universities, both large and small, public and private, in urban and rural settings, widespread geographically throughout the United States. Both graduate and undergraduate programs are represented, although undergraduate programs are in the minority. The information included here was obtained from directors of programs who responded to questionnaires submitted at random to various institutions reporting the existence of internship programs.

The directors were asked to respond to the following questions:

1. In what ways does your internship program endeavor to provide integration of theory and practice?
2. In what ways or in what settings have you had success integrating theory and practice in your internship program?
3. What problems have you encountered in providing for such articulation or integration?
4. Is your program graduate or undergraduate? Briefly describe.

The following programs submitted information from which the analyses in this chapter were drawn:

Undergraduate Programs

Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant. Reported by Curtis E. Nash, Dean, School of Education.

Colorado State College, Greeley. Reported by Robert C. Richardson, Student Teaching Consultant and Coordinator.

Michigan State University: Elementary Internship Program Centers at Alpena, Battle Creek, and Grand Rapids. Reported respectively by Jane Annis and Gerald Inman, Elementary Intern Consultants, and by Theodore J. Czajkowski, Jr., and Russell D. McLean, Jr., Assistant Coordinators.

Towson State College, Baltimore, Maryland. Reported by Billy D. Hauserman, Director of Professional Programs. (Also designated as graduate.)

Southern Illinois University, Carbondale. Reported by Robert C. Richardson, former Coordinator and Administrator.

Wisconsin State University, Oshkosh. Reported by C. M. Hadley, Teacher Internship Coordinator.

Graduate Programs

Dominican College of San Rafael, California. Reported by Margaret M. Wolfson, Assistant Professor of Education and Director of Student Teaching.

San Jose State College, California. Reported by Robert J. Ramonda, Director, Elementary Intern Program.

Stanford University, California. Reported by Phil McKnight, Assistant Coordinator of the Intern Program.

Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Reported by Russell A. Hill, Director.

Towson State College, Baltimore, Maryland. Reported by Billy D. Hauserman, Director of Professional Programs. (Also designated as undergraduate.)

University of California, Berkeley. Reported by Clark Robinson, Director of the Graduate Internship Program.

University of California, Davis. Reported by Dorothy S. Blackmore, Associate Head of Teacher Education.

University of Oregon, Eugene. Reported by John H. Hansen, Associate Professor of Education and Coordinator of Field Experiences.

University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee. Reported by James P. Murphy, Director of the Intern Teaching Program.

Central Questions

Discussion in the remainder of this chapter will focus on the following central questions:

1. How is theoretical course work integrated with practice?
2. How do preinternship laboratory experiences contribute to the integration of theory and practice?
3. How can the study of intern teacher behavior be used to foster the integration of theory and practice?
4. How does the seminar contribute to the integration of theory and practice?
5. How does supervision facilitate the integration of theory and practice?
6. How can involvement of people in various roles facilitate the integration of theory and practice?
7. How can placement and scheduling contribute to the integration of theory and practice?

No attempt is made to give full descriptions of each program referred to but rather to excerpt from the reports submitted those items and elements which particularly pertain to the integration of theory and practice. Full descriptions of many of the individual programs listed above are given elsewhere in this volume or may be obtained directly from those responsible for the programs on the various campuses.

HOW IS THEORETICAL COURSE WORK INTEGRATED WITH PRACTICE?

Very frequently in internship programs one finds theoretical courses being given concurrently either with the preinternship experience or the internship teaching, or both, as one way of ensuring that course work in the college class and the practical experience in the field function together to their mutual benefit so that both become meaningful and understandable to the student. Often, too, the theoretical course work is actually taught in the public school setting so that the very location can lend an air of relevance to the study.

A Clinical Context

The program at Michigan State University at Grand Rapids may be taken as an illustration. The fall term of the junior year, taking place in the community setting, really begins to illustrate the combined manipulation of structure and location to facilitate integration of theory and practice. Methods courses, such as language arts, mathematics, and science, are intermeshed with observation, microteaching, demonstrations, and the use of clinical materials such as the feedback instrument.

The students have several observation experiences in the fall term designed to give them a functional frame of reference in directly relating the practical to the theory discussed in methods. In fact, many of the methods discussions center around specific teacher behaviors that have been observed in classrooms and the theoretical basis for such behaviors. Preinterns are assigned to an observation school where they spend half a day each week. They have the opportunity to see the vertical articulation of the curriculum in the total elementary school (K-6) and also to observe pupil-teacher interaction in many classrooms. The focused observations allow for the discussion of specific small segments of teacher behavior in depth. The demonstration-observations are coordinated by the intern consultants in intern classrooms and provide the preinterns with the opportunity to view as a group a teaching-learning situation. This procedure involves a description beforehand of the demonstration lesson and an evaluative discussion immediately following the lesson, conducted by the intern teacher.

Obviously, the importance of location can be seen as necessary to the setting being described. The educational philosophy of the school district in which the preinterns will do their internship becomes a reality through observation and discussion. The theoretical framework underlying the operation of the school system, the particular school, and individual classrooms can be brought to the fore in a meaningful way not only through verbal description but physical interaction with the situations as they exist.

Moreover, the staff believes that the theory of the comprehensive educational psychology course is best assimilated into a body of knowledge for professional decision making when the preintern student teacher is involved in the process of observing, assisting, and beginning to make these decisions. Therefore, the course becomes closely related to the practical situation, and the theory can often be approached in terms of what student teachers are doing with real children in actual classrooms. In coordinating the course and the seminar, it is possible to have the seminar also relate the relevant theory to the actual problems of preinterns in their student teaching experience, such as planning, classroom management, teacher behavior, or diagnostics.

During the internship, or senior year, the intern is enrolled in an evening class called School and Society. Here the intern examines the

> . . . school as a social institution, teacher as a member of the profession and as a representative of the community, society as a basic orientation for

> both the teacher and the school. Purposes of the public school, major concepts of educational philosophy, and political-legal-economic support of the schools.[1]

The clinical context of internship provides a functional frame of reference for a course like this. Unlike the campus-based students, the interns are active participants in the problems which are being discussed. The problems are real and directly applicable to the experience the interns are currently having.

Similarly, a comment from Towson State College:

> . . . the combination of the methods classes with intern teaching has a salutary effect on class participation by the interns. Their practical experiences are fresh and their concerns are immediate, resulting in discussions which provide depth and practicality. On-the-job instruction obviates the question of irrelevancy in teacher education curriculum.

Planned Interrelations

The graduate program at Stanford University contains many elements which foster integration of theory and practice. Basic to an understanding of the entire program is an awareness of the relationships among its individual strands (i.e., curriculum and instructional procedures of the teaching major, study in the scientific behavioral foundations of education, the various phases of secondary education such as curriculum or guidance, and continued study within the intern's academic department). All strands are consciously interrelated and reinforce each other; this is one of the most important innovations in the new program. Clinical exercises simultaneously satisfy requirements in several sequences of professional course work. Tutor-supervisors work closely with senior professors in each subject field to build intern competence in their major teaching area, but they also have the responsibility of helping interns with clinical assignments in their foundations courses and in general secondary education.

The course pattern of the program facilitates integration, too. The summer courses at the beginning of the intern year give a foundation of theory that is continually built upon during the teaching year, as well as made relevant to practice.

Staff Assignments

In many cases, care is taken to be sure that the professors and lecturers who teach the college courses are themselves conversant with classroom application of the theory they teach. In fact, in a number of programs, the same people both supervise interns and student teachers in the public schools and teach the theoretical courses relating to practical experience. In such a situation there would be, of course, a tremendous opportunity for making the course work relevant to the classroom, and conversely, for making the practical contribute to the theoretical.

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[1] Catalog, 1966-67, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

In the program descriptions, many references were made to using the same staff both to supervise and to teach. The following are typical comments:

> *University of California, Berkeley:* The staff as a team works with the interns throughout the program—from screening and selection to final completion of all aspects of the internship. All staff members supervise *and* teach.
>
> *Dominican College:* The same college staff members who are involved in teaching the methods and curriculum courses also supervise in the field and conduct seminars. There is constant feedback from college to schoolroom and schoolroom to college.
>
> *University of California, Davis:* Probably the most significant factor in the integration of theory and practice is that the same university staff members who teach the elementary curriculum courses also supervise the interns in the public schools. Furthermore, these same supervisors coordinate the public school placement of prospective interns in their preinternship student teaching as well as make the supervisory visits. There is a continuity here which undeniably fosters meaningful transfer by the student.

Articulation Problems

Few problems were mentioned in connection with making the theoretical course work meaningful. However, a statement from the Grand Rapids Center of Michigan State University is of interest here:

> Probably one of the most difficult problems to cope with in integrating theory and practice is expressed in the personal dimension of the teacher in training. Our program has structured the experiences and provided the assistance in the way in which we feel theory can most easily be related to and integrated into practice. However, teaching is behaving. It seems that certain types of intern personalities produce habituated behaviors which preclude the integration of theory into practice.
>
> Some may intellectualize and express quite fluently theory and its application in practice. Some segments of methodological theory might indeed be employed with some degree of finesse. However, one's mode of interaction with the pupils, particularly in stress situations, seems to be a function of this habitual behavior developed prior to and quite independently of internship.
>
> Personal assistance from the resident coordinators and the intern consultants has in some cases been successful in reducing rigidity and increasing sensitivity but still the personal dimension remains the most difficult problem in promoting the implementation of theoretically based behavior.

An additional problem affecting the articulation of the theoretical and the practical would appear to be most pronounced in intern centers fairly remote from the university. This is the difficulty of the dissemination of research, a lag posing real problems in providing for true integration of theory and practice in the distant intern centers. Too many people are needed to transmit theory to the practitioner, and, in this belated process, much research may be misinterpreted, misused, and even lost.

HOW DO PREINTERNSHIP LABORATORY EXPERIENCES CONTRIBUTE TO THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

There is general agreement that preinternship laboratory experience, including student teaching, is essential for the intern candidates. However, the nature of the laboratory experience varies widely, with some programs emphasizing preinternship student teaching in a regular classroom under the guidance of a resident teacher and others stressing simulated classroom experiences such as microteaching. Whatever the preinternship laboratory experience, however, it is oriented specifically to the ensuing internship assignment in most cases.

Continuity is provided by having the intern supervisors also coordinate the preinternship demonstration, observation, and participation experiences. As mentioned in the previous sections, public school observation and participation are commonly offered in connection with theoretical course work preparatory to the internship.

In some programs, extensive use is made of video taping and microteaching, ordinarily utilizing some type of sophisticated, theoretically based guide, such as Flanders' Interaction Analysis, as a basis for studying and changing teacher behavior. These will be discussed in the section to follow.

One problem relating to the preinternship student teaching experience has been clearly identified and probably accounts for the increasing reliance upon microteaching as a desirable, or even a preferred, alternative. This is the problem of scarcity of supply of qualified resident teachers. In the words of a coordinator of one of the Michigan State University centers:

> A problem in providing for the integration of theory in practice is the selection and retention of supervising teachers who are themselves theoretically oriented. This area is nearly saturated with colleges and universities seeking student teaching placements. Supervising teachers who can be good models are difficult to enlist.

The following excerpts from reports of the various programs illustrate some of the ways of providing for preinternship laboratory experience:

> *Dominican College:* Theory is integrated with practice in each phase of the program. In the preprofessional introductory course, students extensively observe and participate in public school classrooms. In the initial classroom experience, there is a total involvement in the public school situation. This is accompanied by supervisory visits and seminars in which the supervisors help the students interpret their experience. A concentrated block of methodology follows the initial classroom assignment so that students feel the need for the methods and, more important, perceive the relevance of the methods to the actual situations they have experienced.
>
> *San Jose State College:* During the first summer of training prior to internship, the interns are required to participate in a two-week workshop devoted to curriculum problems common to all teachers. The program is individualized by devoting time to the examination of problems of curricula

> peculiar to the districts in which interns will be working. Afternoons are spent in studying and evaluating various instructional materials and techniques which the interns will be expected to use. Current materials in art, science, and audiovisual education are presented by specialists.
>
> Since nearly all the interns know the school, the district, and the grade level in which they will be working, the work of the classes and the workshops during this first summer is devoted primarily to each intern's particular grade level and teaching situation. The materials he prepares, the manuals and guides he studies, and the limited summer student teaching he does are all oriented to the situation in which he will find himself. Even though he is exposed to an overview of the total school program, the emphasis is primarily on the position which he will fill.

At the University of California at Berkeley, the intern's formal preparation begins in June in a regular summer school. In the morning he teaches, observes, and confers with his master teacher and internship staff supervisor, while the afternoon is used for seminar meetings.

June graduates who become September interns at the University of California at Davis are required to take some preparatory course work in their senior year. In order to relate these courses to classroom reality, the University has arranged with the local public schools to allow the students to gain extensive experience observing classes and tutoring children who can benefit from individual attention. Following graduation, candidates must engage in an intensive summer of student teaching, related course work, and seminars in order to be ready to assume responsibility for a classroom in the fall. This summer experience "probably represents to an extraordinary degree the wedding of theory and practice. Summer student teaching assignments are as much like the intended internship experience as it is possible to make them."

And at Michigan State University, the preintern is placed for student teaching with a carefully selected supervising teacher. Seminars with supervising teachers emphasize the carefully organized continuity of experience and the role of the student teaching experience as it pertains to the preparation of interns. At this time the preintern is also enrolled in a basic education course called the Individual and the School. Here he examines the "major psychological factors in the school teaching-learning situation; concepts in human development related to the school situation; the teacher's role in motivation, conceptual learning, problem solving, and the development of emotional behavior, attitudes, and values; learning of skills; retention and transfer; and measurement of student abilities and achievement."

With this background, the preintern emerges into the last and most important stage of training, the internship experience.

HOW CAN THE STUDY OF INTERN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BE USED TO FOSTER THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

A number of programs report the use of microteaching and video taping or other technological aids as part of both their preparatory and their in-service

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program for interns. When these means are employed, ordinarily the emphasis is upon changing intern teaching behavior by (a) critique of initial teaching performance, (b) appraisal of specific behavior according to some theoretical guide, and (c) reteaching and reassessment of a similar teaching act modified in terms of the theoretical guide.

Technological Aids

The program at Stanford University, for example, has successfully employed microteaching and other technology in the preparation of its secondary interns. Following is a brief description of the way in which these elements are incorporated into the Stanford program to integrate the theoretical with the practical experience:

> *Microteaching*. Microteaching is a scaled-down teaching encounter, scaled in terms of class size (1-5 students) and time (5-20 minutes). In a typical microteaching lesson, a candidate will teach four students for five minutes while a video recording is being made. The candidate will then view the tape, receive student evaluations, critique the lesson with his tutor-supervisor, and reteach the lesson to a new group of students for further improvement. Great individualization is possible. Microlessons can be scheduled as needed, varying time and students for specific instructional purposes.
>
> *Video recording and time-lapse photography*. The facility these technological aids have for immediate feedback makes them invaluable in the supervision of both microteaching and classroom performance. Video recording has opened the door to new techniques in teacher-trainee supervision. Dissertation research strongly suggests that video recordings can be reliably substituted for live observations in the supervision of teachers. This finding opens up possibilities for enlarged supervision of teachers by senior staff members who traditionally have been precluded from direct supervision by the high demands on their time. The use of 35 mm time-lapse photography provides a training vehicle for improving the pacing of the lesson and the motivation of the student in a given class.

Much use is made of microteaching techniques and video taping in the University of California, Davis, program. Both the preintern student teachers and the interns are frequently taped, and either individual or group critiques may be made, where discussion centers on the teaching act as it relates to a theoretical model such as the use of Taba's technique or certain patterns of Flanders' Interaction Analysis.

Students and supervisors alike are trained in the use of Interaction Analysis. The teaching act is often discussed in terms of the interaction observed by the supervisor when he visits the intern's classroom. Later, at an individual conference, the university supervisor and the intern sit down together to analyze interaction patterns and teaching strategies and to plan whatever changes may be indicated. Thus, once again the theoretical and the practical are united.

Another example of the use of technology may be taken from the San Jose program. During the summer of training prior to internship, microteaching is introduced, a technique used extensively as a feature of the program. During the six-week session, interns attend classes in methods of teaching reading and mathematics. At this time, students plan and execute microteaching lessons using the theories and practices presented in the methods classes. For the microteaching experience, the interns work with children of the grade level they are going to teach, performing specific instructional tasks. For example, if phonics as a skill in the teaching of reading is being considered in the reading methods class, the interns plan and teach a phonics lesson in their microteaching assignment.

In microteaching, each intern prepares a five-minute lesson and teaches it to a group of four or five children. The lesson is recorded on video tape. When the lesson has been completed, the children evaluate it on a special form which they have been trained to use. After the children leave the room, the intern and his microteaching supervisor view the lesson on video tape. Suggestions are made for modification and improvement, and the evaluations made by the children are considered. After the lesson has been critiqued, the intern reteaches the lesson to another small group and attempts to incorporate the suggested changes into his lesson. Again the lesson is video taped and evaluated. In this way, then, the intern can practice skills which were introduced in class and can immediately attempt to refine and improve the skills in a setting where he can stand back and view himself with some objectivity.

Feedback Instruments

Some intern programs report extensive use of theoretical guides for understanding and changing teaching behavior but do not employ video taping or other technology ordinarily associated with microteaching such as has been described above.

The intern consultants at Battle Creek, for example, are presently using clinical materials developed by the Learning Systems Institute at Michigan State University for analysis of teaching behavior. A current example is the *Feedback Instrument* based on research at the Learning Systems Institute, refined by the Battle Creek internship staff, and used to facilitate the integration of theory and practice.

The *Feedback Instrument for Analysis of Teaching Behavior* is a list of teaching behaviors judged by master teachers to be examples of good teaching. The instrument is used as a checklist while observing an intern teaching a lesson to his class. The instrument is a means by which the consultant can focus on desirable teaching behavior based on sound teaching-learning principles.

Success is ultimately realized through the follow-up conference in which the lesson taught is carefully analyzed and specific teaching behaviors are evaluated in relation to the children. During the conference, the intern becomes increasingly aware of the teaching acts which he has performed. By reviewing the items checked, he is immediately aware of those which were not performed, even though they have not been discussed. The feedback instrument brings to the conscious level that behavior which very often seems innate within experienced teachers.

The instrument reveals a pattern of teaching behavior which allows the observer to determine growth quickly, to recognize strong and weak teaching areas easily, and to pinpoint specific areas for discussion and correction. The tool aids the observer to focus on specific acts of teaching behavior without relying primarily on his own experience or subjective impressions. It provides a method for pursuing areas which through normal conferences would not come into focus and is effective in moving the intern from an established level of teaching to one of more sophistication.

At Michigan State University's Alpena Center, a similar feedback instrument, the *Clinic School Manual,* is used. San Jose State College reports use of the *Instrument for Observation of Teaching Activities* developed on their own campus for a similar purpose. Each of these provides a focus for the theoretically based behaviors believed desirable for the interns to acquire at a conscious level.

Many other programs, such as those at Colorado State College and Wisconsin State University at Oshkosh, report experimental work in progress with microteaching and video taping techniques.

HOW DOES THE SEMINAR CONTRIBUTE TO THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

There is a general agreement among the various programs as to the value and importance of the seminar in the internship program. Seminars are held concurrently with intern teaching and are ordinarily directed by the intern consultant or supervisor, who acts as a catalyst in relating theory to practice. Seminars may be organized either formally or on an informal basis, in which case the unstructured interaction among interns provides opportunity to relate theory to practice. Principals, supervising teachers, other district personnel, and even former interns are frequently mentioned as individuals with much to contribute to the internship seminars as resource people.

On the other hand, there is much less agreement as to the purpose of the seminar. One point of view, which is held by the majority of the directors reporting, is that the seminars are concerned with the immediate and real problems of the interns rather than being essentially and formally content-centered. Another viewpoint holds that the seminars should be organized to provide depth in curriculum, utilizing perhaps a spiral curriculum pattern to structure their content; always, however, in relation to the practical experience of the classroom.

Focus on Immediate Concerns

At San Jose State College, the seminars are based on the experiences which the interns are having while teaching. Suggestions by the supervisors from the college, by the school district personnel, and by the interns themselves are solicited as to what they would like to have covered in the seminars. This has been quite successful, since the suggestions come from people who can view the needs of the interns from various perspectives. For example, most of the interns must conduct parent-teacher conferences early in the year. Just prior to this time, a seminar is devoted to this topic. Motivation for learning about parent-teacher conferences is high, since the interns are about to conduct such conferences on their own. Following the conferences which the interns conduct with the parents of their own pupils, another seminar is held on the same topic as a follow-up.

In addition to the seminars on specific topics, the college supervisors in their visits to the interns observe how the interns put the seminar topic into practice. The supervisor offers suggestions, ideas, and help to an intern in implementing what was presented in the seminar. When a seminar presentation is made by an expert in a particular field, grade-level discussions are held and these smaller groups help the intern relate the topic to his own particular grade level and teaching situation.

Similarly, students' opinions as to their needs are taken into account in planning the seminars at Temple University. Students are involved in the formulation of curriculum content, and student groups advise on program operation and policy.

At the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee, intern seminars are arranged to integrate teaching experience and professional course content, as it seems obvious that each day in his teaching the intern may be faced with a problem that bears in some way on the theory presented in the professional course. Accordingly, the two semesters of intern teaching are accompanied by a weekly intern seminar to provide a forum whereby interns interact on critical aspects of teaching. These seminars provide a focus for the ongoing problems and concerns the interns face and establish a setting to evolve theory out of practice.

The following comments by Wisconsin students serve to emphasize that interns see the seminar as a sounding board for their concerns in teaching—concerns developed in the classroom and the lecture hall:

> Seminar discussion helped to build up my self-confidence with the children.
>
> Seminars provided practical insights into teaching—discussions provided me with day-to-day ammunition.
>
> Seminars were a safety valve.
>
> Seminars regenerated creative ability and enthusiasm when discouragement and frustration set in.

The discussion of teaching problems and their solutions brings an insight into teaching.

Seminars provided practical and theoretical insights.

Focus on Curriculum Content

On the other hand, some programs conceive the seminars to be less of a sounding board and more of a vehicle whereby significant amounts of new curriculum content may be provided as needs arise. Berkeley's graduate internship program represents this point of view in its spiral curriculum.

Throughout the internship year of teaching, the interns are supervised by members of the program staff, and on Saturday mornings all interns return to the campus for related seminars led by these same staff members. Seminar subject content, in each case, is the intern's current classroom experience integrated with appropriate professional content made available at the right time and in the right amount for maximum intern growth.

The use of a spiral curriculum in the program makes this integration possible. What is the spiral curriculum? Imagine that a wheel hub is the seminar topic, "Planning," a theme selected for the seminar because it bears directly on the problems which the interns are immediately facing in the classroom. The spokes of the wheel are such professional content areas of teacher education as Learning and the Learner, Curriculum and Instruction, Growth and Development, The School in American Society, and History and Philosophy. The curriculum begins near the hub and continues around it in ever-expanding spirals. From each spoke can be drawn information of the kind and in the amount needed for the day's seminar discussion of "Planning."

During the intern's first few days of teaching, a three hundred sixty degree swing around the hub, "Planning," may be made in a single seminar, with all five of the spokes contributing content to the seminar topic for the day. Other daily seminar topics follow, such as "Implementing Instruction" or "Evaluating Instruction." Complete revolutions daily may soon give way to partial revolutions as the interns are ready for the study of a topic in great depth. Eventually, the subject content represented by a single spoke (e.g., Learning and the Learner) may contribute content for several consecutive seminars. In this way, use of the spiral curriculum enables the staff to guide interns to professional content beyond their immediate concerns but important to their continued growth in professional competence.

Concurrent seminars providing course content are also part of the University of Oregon's internship program. During the intern teaching period, the intern is required to participate in one university seminar each term, and if he is teaching a maximum load, he carries no additional work on campus.

Principals as well as supervising teachers and other school district personnel are welcome to attend the weekly seminars on the university campus. Their attendance at the seminars indicates another link between theory and practice, and it helps to coordinate the teaching experience in the school and the intern's program at the university.

At Oregon, during the teaching phase of the program, the intern assumes the roles of both teacher and student. In the teaching role, he is responsible to the same authorities as other teachers in the school district and is directly responsible to the building principal for carrying out district policies and procedures.

As a student, however, the intern enrolls for seminar courses and is responsible to the instructor for the completion of requirements in these seminars. The intern is also engaged in a learning situation through his participation in the practicum under the guidance of his supervising teacher in the school and his university supervisor. As such, he is responsible for working cooperatively and continually to strive toward increased teaching competence.

Some programs provide for both problem-centered and content-centered seminars concurrently. The Davis program is an illustration:

> Concurrent seminars, problem-centered, and theoretical course work related to the interns' teaching accompany the internship year. The fact that both the course work and the teaching are experienced simultaneously and each contributes to and draws from the other makes for a real integration of the theoretical and the practical during the entire year.

The Milwaukee report also indicates a trend in the direction of increased course content for the seminar:

> While success in furthering integration of theory and practice is facilitated through the present sequence of field and theoretical experiences, it is felt that increased articulation may be realized when the foundations and methods courses can be offered through a seminar utilizing a team-teaching approach.

Multipurpose Seminars

One program illustrates several different uses to which seminars may be put during different phases of the internship. At the various centers of Michigan State University, seminars both precede and accompany the preinternship student teaching experience. Moreover, three half-day seminars are held with the supervising teachers of the preinterns, with emphasis on correlating what is done in the elementary classroom program and philosophy of the Elementary Intern Program. In addition to the observation of the interns in their classrooms, the intern consultants schedule bimonthly seminars for interns throughout the year, with emphasis upon their common problems and interests.

Michigan State's program, moreover, provides an interesting source of seminar content not mentioned in other reports. This is a shared experience for both the intern and his consultant whereby released time is given for visitation together in classrooms of experienced teachers. After the visits, discussions are held in seminar to bring the visitations into focus and relate them to the intern's teaching.

Identification of Problems

One central problem has been identified by several programs. This is the problem of lengthening the already full day for the intern. Often expressed was the feeling that there is not enough time to do everything well, and evening and Saturday seminars each have their disadvantages for the participants. In the words of the consultant reporting the Alpena Center program:

> No problem of providing for integration of theory and practice through an internship program is greater than that of controlling, or lengthening, the school day. The pressures of an already overburdened curriculum make additional expansion of theory and its integration into practice most difficult.

And at Dominican College, one of the problems currently facing the staff concerns the intern seminars. These on-campus seminars help to deal with immediate concerns of both first- and second-semester interns as they meet in a group and talk freely with one another and with the staff about their classroom experiences. However, the college has become increasingly aware of the difficulty of finding available time in the busy schedules of these full-time beginning teachers to arrange weekly seminars.

HOW DOES SUPERVISION FACILITATE THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

One of the key roles in the internship is played by the intern supervisor or consultant, whose importance as a prime mover in the integration of theory and practice is emphasized in almost all programs.

At Michigan State University, the intern consultant serves as a catalyst in relating theory to practice and is the key to the success of the program. Selected from among the most capable teachers employed by the cooperating district, he becomes a member of the staff of the university and is exclusively assigned to help interns. Each intern consultant provides assistance to five or six interns while also working closely with the university resident coordinators in planning preintern and intern experiences. The intern consultant's salary is drawn from a sum representing the difference between the intern's stipend and a beginning teacher's salary.

Because the consultant does not assume a direct role in evaluating the interns for retention as district employees, he is able to maintain a threat-free relationship with the interns, an essential factor since he is the primary source of their guidance.

The Intern Consultant

The key source of assistance during this internship year is the intern consultant, who provides personal support and guidance for the intern on a frequent basis—as much as one full day a week. It is the intern consultant who assists in the interpretation and implementation of theory. Because of this assistance, the implementing of theory becomes manageable for the intern, and hence, workable. Because of this assistance the intern begins to ask questions about theory and its integration with practice. Growth in theoretical understanding occurs because the intern consultant is there to encourage it and to demonstrate its relevance. Interns have expressed their feelings about the intern consultant:

> An intern has several advantages over a regular first-year teacher. Since you have an intern consultant ready to assist you, you feel free to ask questions you would not want to bother some one else with. The consultant's job is to help you and she will do as much or as little as you want. . . . Since there are subjects that you will find difficulty in teaching, the consultant can be helpful in teaching a demonstration lesson in the subject, or if you wish, may show you a better method or technique. . . . You should remember that the consultant is there to help you. She is not there to grade you or criticize you; you should not feel defensive when she comments on your teaching. Her only job is to help you become a better teacher. This amount of personal help puts the intern teacher far ahead of the regular first year teacher.[2]

These comments are typical of those expressed by most interns. It is the assistance they receive in conjunction with the autonomy they experience which seems to generate so much enthusiasm for teaching and for utilizing theoretical concepts. Interns implement theory because they continue to receive the interpretative and demonstrative assistance needed to make it work. Perhaps the internship experience can best be summarized in the words of one of the interns:

> In an intern teacher education program you are able to get time and experience completely on your own. You are free to make your own decisions and set your own policy. Yet, if you want it or need it, help is readily available. This is of great help to your feeling of confidence and security in your profession. It seems true that nothing succeeds like success. It is this relationship between independence and assistance that helps the beginning teacher through his most difficult year.[3]

Since the low consultant-intern ratio allows the consultant to spend one day a week with each intern, a working relationship is soon established so that the consultant becomes a second teacher in the classroom without diminishing the authority of the intern. By knowing the children, the parents (in many cases), the curriculum, and the building principal and staff, he is able to recognize the needs of the children and influence their learning experiences indirectly through the intern. The intern consultant is able to analyze the classroom situations and encourage the intern to relate previous formal study to day-to-day teaching. Using his experience and knowledge of diagnostic procedures, the consultant helps the intern diagnose the learning difficulties of the children and to plan and implement appropriate methods. Although regular teachers are seldom asked to analyze their practice, the consultant encourages a dialogue that helps the intern make the basis of his practice more explicit.

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[2] *An Intern's View of EIP.* East Lansing: College of Education, Michigan State University, n.d.

[3] *Ibid.*

Personalized Supervision

In the Central Michigan University program at Mt. Pleasant, each intern, when he is off-campus, is the direct responsibility of a university coordinator. This university coordinator has many opportunities to sit down and talk with the intern about what he is doing, why he is doing it, and in this way to integrate theory and practice.

Similarly, at the University of Oregon, the university supervisors serve as a vital communication link in their role as liaison between the interns, the school, and the University. The supervisors coordinate intern seminar experiences with school experiences, conduct the intern seminars, participate in seminars for supervising teachers, and cooperatively schedule observation in the interns' classrooms with the interns and the supervising teachers.

One of the innovations in the Stanford internship program is the establishment of a tutor-supervisor position representing the creation of a new role in teacher education at the University. The tutor-supervisor is a master teacher training for a career in teacher education. One key concept of the tutor-supervisor position is assignment to a *small* number of interns. He tutors each intern in his professional course work and supervises his teaching performance in the microteaching laboratory during the academic year.

Another essential feature of the program is a reduction in the teaching load of the resident supervisors so that they can give adequate time to the supervision of interns in the schools and participate in the training seminars at the University. Thus, the experienced master teacher who is working most closely with the interns in the classroom also helps with the professional instruction at the University. The total load of classes carried by three interns (six classes) in effect purchases one period of released time for the resident supervisor without cost to the school district. The arrangement provides adequate supervision on a continuing basis.

An interesting emphasis on career socialization is reported from Temple University, which offers a graduate program for secondary interns. As in other programs described above, the supervision is personalized. Senior faculty are frequently involved in field supervision, with the program extending over a two-year period and emphasizing a problem-solving approach to areas of trouble.

Certain problems in connection with supervisory load have been identified by some of the programs surveyed. When all the supervision is provided by the college or university, as is frequently the case, comments such as the following were often noted:

> Probably the most difficult problem with regard to integrating theory and practice is that the supervisors from the college do not have as much opportunity as they wish to work closely with the interns during the teaching year. Because of a heavy work load of supervision, the supervisors cannot spend as much time in each classroom or conferring with the interns as they would like.

As programs grow, too, problems of supervision are magnified. The unprecedented growth of the program at Davis, for example, is placing heavier and heavier demands upon the supervisory staff, with resulting larger seminars and less time for individual students. There is a real danger of losing the intimacy and the present *esprit de corps* if the program grows too large and inevitably more impersonal.

HOW CAN INVOLVEMENT OF PEOPLE IN VARIOUS ROLES FACILITATE THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

Intern programs represent the combined thinking and involvement of many different kinds of people, ranging from the all-college or university-wide interdisciplinary teacher education planning committee to the cooperative endeavor of administrators and district staff working with interns and their supervisors in the field to make the program a success. A number of reports indicate that both academic and education department faculties were involved in the creation and development of intern programs from their very inception. In addition, frequent mention was made of the importance of coordination and close cooperation between the school district and the college or university to make possible the integration of theory and practice.

Principals, supervising teachers, or other district personnel frequently participate in university seminars and other courses for interns. Past interns are very often mentioned as excellent resource people in seminars, in courses, or in informal gatherings to make the experience of new interns meaningful to them.

Certain problem areas involving the function of the several kinds of people have been identified. Foremost seems to be that of selection and retention of public school supervising teachers who are themselves theoretically oriented. Since supervising teachers who can be good models are difficult to enlist, it is hard to find adequate numbers of classrooms for preintern laboratory experience where the ideas being discussed in the college classes are actually being put into practice.

Moreover, in some cases, school district support and full cooperation have been difficult to secure and maintain, although this would seem to be offset somewhat by the large number of programs reporting growing school district acceptance and enthusiasm for the program.

The report of the Central Michigan University program is illustrative of the involvement of many individuals in a program. The internship plan, which provides for one semester of internship in each of the last two college years, was the outgrowth of a campus-wide effort by both the academic departments and the professional education department to create a new program which would reflect the interests and concerns of each. The planning committee on this project consisted of many people outside the field of education working together to integrate the theory of departments such as English and history into the entire program of teacher education, and particularly the internship.

Classes on campus very frequently have practicing teachers, administrators, and others come to talk with the students about the kinds of things that are going on in the schools. It is the responsibility of the instructor, after the visit, to see that the theory and practice are put together.

Furthermore, interns on the campus who have been off campus often have parties and other informal affairs as well as regular meetings to orient the newcomers to the program. This is another way of integrating theory and practice.

In short, the program attempts to bridge the following serious gaps in teacher education:

1. The gap between high school and the university
2. The gap between the university and a teaching position
3. The gap between the university and the public school
4. The gap that too often exists between liberal arts faculties and education departments—a gap that makes many a university a house divided.[4]

The program at the University of Oregon has wide and diversified representation on a coordinating council:

> Since the internship program is conceived to be a joint effort of the University of Oregon and the participating school districts in which the interns are placed, a coordinating council consisting of representatives from these school districts, the State Department of Education, and the University of Oregon serves to develop and adapt procedures related to the implementation of the internship program. Accordingly, the theoretical and the practical viewpoints are both represented on the coordinating council.

School-University Cooperation

Cooperation between personnel of school districts and intern programs takes a number of forms. At the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee, the cooperating school system has accepted as part of its function the shared responsibility for the supervision and the instructional content of the program. The close working relationship between the intern staff and the administrative, supervisory, and instructional personnel of the schools makes possible a high-quality program of supervision and instruction. An obvious strength of the Intern Teaching Program is the professional and personal rapport developed among interns, university faculty, and school staff involved in it. As the program expands there is the danger that institutionalization will diminish this in-group feeling.

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[4] Alterman, Ronald A. *A New Approach to Teacher Education: The Central Michigan University Story.* Mt. Pleasant: Central Michigan University Press, 1966. p. 27.

In the introductory week of the preinternship methods block in Michigan State's Alpena program, resource people from the Alpena Schools are called in to discuss various aspects of the school system, including curriculum, special services, and school policies.

San Jose's program also illustrates the efforts of a number of different resource people. During the afternoons in the preinternship summer, the intern works with consultants in subject matter fields and, when possible, with the principal of the school to which he will be assigned during the school year. The intern is given opportunity to teach under supervision in local public school summer programs and has the experience of observing demonstration lessons given by former interns and other experienced teachers. The final two weeks of the first summer are devoted to the study of current methods and materials in the teaching of language arts under the guidance of two specialists in the field—a college professor and an experienced classroom teacher.

During the school year, the intern has sole responsibility for his own class. However, a close working relationship is established between the intern and a team composed of his college supervisor, the building principal, and district consultants. By these means, the intern has the benefit of skilled help when he needs it.

And at Stanford, the allocation of personnel also facilitates the integration of theory and practice. Resident supervisors, who are experienced teachers in the cooperating schools, are knowledgeable in both areas and help the intern adapt his course instruction at Stanford to the reality of his classes at the high school. The subject area tutor-supervisors from Stanford also help interns translate learning into action. These people are advanced graduate students who frequently visit interns to evaluate and advise them on their teaching behavior. Their involvement in both theory, from their own courses, and practice, from observing and tutoring interns, helps the intern to complement theory and practice as well as to integrate them. Finally, professors at Stanford are aware of the need and the opportunity to make theories relevant to practice. Their research work frequently involves the interns, so they are often directly concerned with practice.

Competencies of Supervisors

A number of reports mention the qualities desired in intern supervisors if they are to be more effective in fulfilling their responsibilities as interpreters of theory in practice. Detailed descriptions of criteria at the University of

Oregon, for example, for selection of individuals for supervisory roles define these competencies:

> Should have a good knowledge and understanding of concepts and principles involved in the teaching-learning process as well as the practical applications of these concepts and principles. Should be able to communicate on matters pertaining to the nature of learning, the nature of the learner, the goals of education in American society, social foundations of education, and the methodology of teaching. Should be able to see the interrelationship of these and to consistently make daily decisions in a way that reflects this insight. . . .
>
> Should be able to identify cues which indicate problems, strengths, and weaknesses of students as well as readiness patterns for next steps in the learning process; should be equipped with a variety of techniques to deal with these; and should be able to communicate with the intern in such a way that the prospective teacher will have an opportunity to acquire these vital competencies. . . .
>
> Should be able to evaluate the progress of the intern in the attainment of the competencies desired in a teacher and to be able to offer positive suggestions for improvement to enable the intern to make continuous progress toward the development of optimum potentialities for teaching.

Likewise, at Berkeley, the intern supervisory staff is drawn from the ranks of experienced teachers, professionally prepared, who have a philosophy which integrates educational theory and practice.

At the University of Wisconsin, the interns work in the schools in a team of three—two interns and one master teacher—assuming responsibility for two teaching situations. The master teacher's responsibility is not to a teaching schedule but to provide instructional leadership to two interns, to recognize and take advantage of the "teachable moment" when the intern is aware of the need and receptive to theorizing. In daily counseling, the master teacher is able to provide assistance in relating theoretical concepts to everyday teaching activities. The intern staff provides supervisory support to the master teacher, thereby strengthening the resources available to meet the needs of the interns.

HOW CAN PLACEMENT AND SCHEDULING CONTRIBUTE TO THE INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE?

There seems to be general agreement that, ideally, districts employing interns should be fairly close to the college or university campus. When the two are situated near together, there is much opportunity to communicate, to relate the theoretical work to the practical, and to utilize facilities of each to good advantage.

For example, at Stanford, the integration of theory and practice is accomplished through a juxtaposition of classes and teaching each day of the week. On a typical day, an intern will teach two high school classes, attend classes in his academic major, and attend his professional education courses. The professional preparation courses are given in the late afternoon so that all interns may attend.

Although the results so far indicate that the advantages significantly outweigh the disadvantages, one problem should be identified. This is the danger that commuting between high school and university campus may mean less time at the school to become a true member of the faculty, to get the feel of the job, and to become truly aware of the environment. Under such circumstances there would be a possibility that not having enough time to do both well would lead to a dilution of the learning experiences in both areas.

Similarly, at the University of Oregon, the proximity of the cooperating districts to the University enables the professional education staff to carry out the necessary supervision, work with the cooperating schools in maximizing the quality of the experience, and provide seminars for interns on the university campus. Students also are able to take advantage of the University's library resources as well as the instructional resources of the school district.

Other reports indicate that there are problems when the off-campus center is situated too far from the university campus. In such cases, local library facilities frequently prove to be inadequate, and students and instructors alike find it difficult to explore thoroughly all of the current trends in education.

The report from Central Michigan University suggests that one of the most successful ways of integrating theory and practice is that of alternating the theoretical and the practical in the program. On-campus semesters of work of a theoretical nature alternate with off-campus semesters as interns work, practice, and teach in the field. Even while the students are working off campus, however, they have the opportunity to take theoretical course work concurrently at the University and thereby to further the integration of theory and practice.

One problem in connection with scheduling concurrent courses for interns was mentioned in several reports. This is the problem of not enough time to accomplish everything, of lengthening an already full school day for interns and supervisors alike. In addition, in one case, it was found that the school district had set up an in-service program which conflicted with scheduled course work required of the interns at the college. Such a problem, of course, is difficult to resolve. Its existence serves to emphasize how necessary are coordination and cooperation among the various agencies concerned with the success of an internship program.

GENERALIZATIONS FROM DATA

Fourteen representative internships have been carefully analyzed in this chapter in regard to their integration of theoretical concepts in education with the practical work of the teacher in the classroom. Without exception, in the programs studied, the implementation of theory in practice is considered to be an essential and valuable element—one which is consciously planned for and sought as a prime objective.

Many ways of providing for this desirable articulation and implementation have been identified and concomitant difficulties have been reported. The following generalizations appear to emerge from a study of the data surveyed for this chapter:

1. Theory courses are usually given concurrently with, and in connection with, preinternship laboratory experiences of a practical nature. These courses and the related field experiences are ordinarily planned, coordinated, and taught by people involved in the practical phase of the internship laboratory experiences in preparation for internship teaching.
2. Both theoretical course work and problem-centered seminars generally accompany the internship teaching during its entirety.
3. Microteaching and video taping are extensively used in internship programs as means of providing feedback on teacher behavior. These are frequently accompanied by the use of a clinical instrument or theoretical guide for analysis of classroom interaction and as means of changing or improving the teaching act.
4. Extensive, personalized supervision is an important feature of all programs studied. In fact, most reports indicate that the supervisor, highly skilled in the interpretation of theory to the intern, is the key to the intern's successful implementation of theory in the classroom.
5. Internship generally seems to be conceived as a program requiring the interaction of many different individuals in varying professional roles rather than as a function of education departments alone. Commonly involved are both theoreticians and practitioners at a number of levels. Academic departments, school district administrators, consultants and teachers, and former interns are all utilized to make the internship a meaningful experience.
6. Finally, coordination and cooperation among all the agencies involved are felt to be necessary to bring about the most effective integration of theory and practice in internship.

CHAPTER V

Changing Teaching Behavior: Objective of Internship

Teaching behavior is incredibly well learned before a prospective teacher ever enters a college of education. One dimension of this teaching behavior has been very well learned by the end of sixth grade as evidenced by sixth-grade girls who organize happy first-grade girls and reluctant first-grade boys and "play school." All know their exact behavior, or the vocational dimension of teaching: the overt gestures with rulers, the roles, even the "looks" at misbehaving students. Another part of teaching, the personality dimension, has also been well formed, probably *before* kindergarten. These two dimensions of prelearned teaching behavior keep teachers from attaining the third dimension, the professional dimension. They "get by" during their first teaching year, and many stop growing.

So teaching is not a science. It is less a science than an art, and as an art it is a contemporary development. It is behavior totally dictated by the past, learned by watching teachers teach and by significant life experience, *not* in the colleges of education.

Nothing in present-day teacher education programs stands a ghost of a chance of changing teaching behavior to more professional stances—except structures like internship. Let's talk about that potential, starting with an analysis of what kind of schooling is considered as providing a general education.

EDUCATED MAN AND PROFESSIONAL MAN

A system of education to develop the educated man consists of a framework which includes—

1. Appropriate content, ranging from the study of the classics to social problem analysis.
2. People to process the content, described in behaviors ranging from autocratic to permissive.
3. A suitable location for the processing.
4. Time necessary for developing and supervising the content into the value systems and behaviors decided upon as evidencing the educated man.
5. Methods stated as appropriate to the social and individual goals stated as objectives, yet actually ranging from those ensuring an education to those ensuring adherence to a discipline.

All of the decisions involved in defining the content, people, place, and time to develop the educated man are made within the culture. The educated man is defined by his culture, and at times the definitions are not clearly made. They have been made in our culture and become visible in courses of content in schools and colleges, school locations, kinds of teachers and sanctioned behaviors, the chronological steps needed in elementary, secondary, and university curriculum assimilation, and methods of teaching that meet both social and individual needs.

Let's shift from the educated man to a man entering a profession.

A system of education to develop the professional man results in a similar framework of content, processing personnel, and location in a time element. The education of the professional man begins where the education of the educated man leaves off. But the boundaries of each profession reach to different depths in the previous systematic educating framework for the educated man. Further, as a man gets more professionally educated, he affects the dimensions, kinds, and depths of the educated man's framework in the future.

The education of the professional man is defined by his intended profession, not the culture. Each profession decides upon a funded content appropriate to the profession, defines the roles of the processors, chooses locations, and states the time necessary for the developments that evidence professional competency.

Professional preparation systems generally begin in the university upper schools after most of the following patterns which were preceded by systematic elementary and secondary education are completed:

1. General and basic subject matter courses, usually synthesized and historic.
    1.1 Courses about individuals, groups, institutions, and systems; or historical functioning in the animate world.
        1.11 Courses about man's historic and contemporary attempts at human organization and behavior such as history, sociology, anthropology, and psychology, as examples.
    1.2 Courses about man's appreciation of and use of art form, sound, and symbol.
        1.21 Art, music, and literature, as examples.
    1.3 Courses about the structure of systems in the animate and inanimate world.
        1.31 Chemistry, biology, and physiology, as examples.
    1.4 Courses about the concepts of external systems in the inanimate world.
        1.41 Geography, physics, and astronomy, as examples.
    1.5 Courses explaining and teaching skills of communication systems.
        1.51 Language, mathematics, and navigation, as examples.
2. General, contemporary skills and contents.
    2.1 Courses in physical education, home economics, and many more general "elective" areas, as examples.

With the conclusion of the education sequence as outlined above, the student is ready to enter the professional colleges—education, law, medicine, engineering, agriculture, and architecture—for special training. He is considered educated enough for professional training.

The educated man becomes the professional man by entering and completing a system of education bounded by the funded bodies of knowledge and their applications to the profession in question. For example, a medical student will study more extensively than the educated man the biological and physiological systems of man and the pharmacologies which, if applied, will heal that man in the realm of professional practice. Also, the engineer will delve further into mathematics as a communicative and computative system, identify the specialities of engineering and the various modes and fields of application.

The educative pattern of the professional man, which picks up where the program of the educated man concludes, may be described as follows:

3. Specific professional content—the funded bodies of information appropriate to the profession. (The content of the profession is dependent on the profession's social necessity and impact.)
    - 3.1 Sometimes content, as Latin for law.
    - 3.2 Sometimes behavior, as courtroom behavior for law.
4. Courses detailing the process of application or relating the people and content; methods courses.
5. Foundation courses about the profession.
6. Laboratory periods for application.

The preparation system of the educated man has been described; then that of the professional man. Now, let's look at the education of teachers.

THE PROFESSIONAL TEACHER

Some difficulties are immediately obvious. The framework for teacher development reaches all the way into previous education, because the profession of education uses all of the contents of the general education of man. It is concerned with processing all of man's basic knowledges and many of the concepts, skills, and behaviors of other professions. The professional teacher is concerned with all human internal and external systems, all environments, all known processes. Teaching, of course, is the mother of all professions.

Besides the difficulties obvious in the complexities of the information that educators process, each person learns a folk teaching model, a realm of behaviors and ideations not too different from those obvious in the playground chants and ritualistic games which have been going on, they say, since Elizabethan times. The average person watches teachers teach for 25 hrs. per week for 36 weeks per year for 12 years—a total of nearly 11,000 hours.

As a profession we have never fully admitted that beginning teachers have come to us with this repertoire of behaviors because we have always talked about teaching in terms of learning, not teaching. We have concluded that teaching behavior doesn't count; that is, if we teach enough about learning, the behavior of the teacher will be influenced. So, currently and in the past, the professional content offered in the professional training of teachers follows the pattern of education for the professional man, as follows:

3. Behavioral information courses.
    - 3.1 Educational psychology.
    - 3.2 Child growth and development.
    - 3.3 Sometimes educational sociology.
        - 3.31 A blend of vocational information, theory, and research about children and the learning process.
4. Methods courses.
    - 4.1 Teaching of reading, mathematics, social studies, science, and general curriculum; or relating people and content.
5. Foundation courses.
    - 5.1 The philosophy and history of education.
6. Application courses.
    - 6.1 Observation, participation, and student teaching.

The student of professional education usually "practices" or applies his previous education in ten or fewer weeks, in a tension-producing environment, in someone else's classroom. "Practice" means taking the fantastically broad, yet interrelated, content of our culture (the total for the educated man) and applying it in the education of complex humans, using processes virtually unknown, yet incredibly important, that have been taught in behavioral information courses, methods courses, and foundation courses as principles, generalizations, and theories. "Practice" means translating everything previously learned in the education sequence of the educated and professional man into specific teaching behaviors.

It cannot be done. It isn't done. But beginning teachers *do* behave—act—teach. And this teaching has been thought to be the *result* of education courses. It is suggested that these initial teaching behaviors have been learned before enrollment in a college of education. They are the behaviors that have been learned by watching teachers teach for tens of thousands of hours, combined with habitual personal behaviors.

These are the behaviors that emerge at the time of initial practice. They are immediately reinforced by the success or failure of the teaching behavior or what happens in that crucial ten-week student teaching experience. They are not affected by methods courses. In fact, because the concepts of the previous education courses are unapplicable, being so intermixed with a vast, complex system of previous educational experiences and with the affective domain, the beginning teacher develops a complete system of *negative* attitudes about the preparation for teaching. He doesn't even know what is meant by professional behavior.

THE BEHAVIORS OF TEACHERS

First, we must accept the theory that teaching is behavior, and, second, that this behavior has at least three dimensions:

1. A personal dimension
2. A vocational dimension
3. A professional dimension.

Next, consider that the personal and vocational dimensions may be as present before college entrance as, for instance, masculine-feminine roles, because all of us are teachers from the moment we experience something and want to share it; from the time we show a playmate something and watch his reaction; as we spend tens of thousands of hours watching teachers behave; as we interpret, subvocally, what we see to ourselves; as we live. It may be argued that, given these assumptions, changing teaching behavior is impossible. Perhaps, but let us look at the situation as we find it in most programs of teacher preparation.

An attitude is an emotionalized system of ideas that predetermines a response. A response can be a thought or overt behavior. The attitudes personally developed about life, which is actually one vast teaching-learning experience, joined with other attitudes and behaviors "picked up" in highly emotionalized schooling experiences, form a hard core of behavior that beginning teachers use.

Some of this behavior is good.

Some of it is bad.

Because of the inapplicability of teaching courses and the tensions of initial student teaching practice, we usually reinforce the bad.

Children learn behavior roles by observing behaviors around them, emotionally reacting to these perceptions (implementing inductive thinking), then practicing the role or behavior. It is the same in learning the role or behavior of the teacher. The children "playing school" will follow a vocational pattern of behavior—what they've seen teachers do—and mix it with their personal habitual behavior. They will have picked up the most typical, overt, obvious gestures, motions, and fundamental techniques (behaviors) from their teachers. They fuse these with the patterns that are their selves—the stances and behaviors taken from the hereditary-environmental whole that is their life and its boundaries. If they have learned autocratic behaviors in church, home and school, they will fuse an element of autocracy into their play. If they have been surrounded by a permissive atmosphere, this school play will be permissive and somewhat flexible. Interestingly enough, the children know this teaching behavior so well that we never say they are "misbehaving" as they do it. They have the role down pat. *And we accept this behavior as appropriate*. By the time the student enters a college of education, this core of learned teaching behavior is a core of steel, and we do nothing in current programs to melt it down.

We do not first teach about teaching, but about learning. In methods and foundations courses we teach abstractions, generalizations, and principles about learning, behavior, curriculum, and society, expecting the prospective teacher to fashion specific teaching behavior from these abstractions. We expect information to change behavior.

Teacher candidates cannot be expected to get specific behaviors out of all this, but they must. A few candidates readily admit confusion and defeat; they project the fault back at us. They scoff at education. Few guidelines for their behaviors are taken from methods courses, except negative ones. Students truly do not understand that a *method* is the kind of behavior used to take an abstraction and help a student understand it. They never understand that a method indicates a behavioral direction.

This situation gets worse.

The student moves from methods into student teaching, where he looks around and usually sees the same kind of vocational teaching behaviors being played out that he has viewed for years. Unknowingly, therefore, the core vocational behaviors that he values in the supervising teacher are reinforced. He is allowed to pick those behaviors that coincide with those he has valued from the past, and they can be good or bad.

But, most important, he has those habitual personal behaviors reinforced that in the past have been most appropriate in previous stress situations. He either over-laughs or over-cries. He calls in reactions he has used before, and his personally habituated behavior is thus transferred to teaching behavior. It becomes permanent. If this behavior is *totally* inappropriate, of course he is dropped. But usually he passes, because we do not know how to screen personality.

These two behavioral realms are fused and total teaching behavior emerges. If it is the kind of total behavior we value, we say our education courses are effective. We say the incumbent has *learned* from his studies. If bad behavior emerges, we have other things to say.

But actually our incumbent is a behaving teacher and the schoolmarm has done it all. She's a practitioner, and she who practices wins the game. She behaves. She acts. The student teacher watches. He's seen this all his life. He sees it in student teaching. This becomes the total professional content for him. Located in the community in the self-contained classroom, the supervising teacher becomes the single processor—the person who teaches the teacher how to teach.

But why should we be so helpless? Teaching is behavior, and behavior can be guided. It can best be guided in the developmental and systematic framework of the internship which allows time to develop a professional dimension of behavior in addition to vocational-personal teaching behaviors. In the framework of the internship, the inclusion of methods courses is appropriate, but they must be reorganized and reapplied. Student teaching is still useful, but its placement and other overall strategies must change.

Professional education must be reexamined. In fact, we must reexamine our placement of content, our processors, where behavior is practiced, and the time that is taken. We must restrategize every last behavior we employ in causing behavior in others. We must create situations where behavior can be guided.

INITIAL BEHAVIOR MODELS

A methods course, historically, is a curious amalgamation of information about human behavior, the teaching process, aids and materials, and fundamental facts about the profession that have also been mixed with general information about our system of education and especially mixed with proved information about learning—a terribly complex and unsystematized amount of information.

This learning information concerns the biologies of children's growth and development, learning theory and psychology, the cultural patterns of anthropology and sociology—a concoction of crucial elements absolutely necessary for establishing a base for professional behavior.

All of these elements had an origin on the practitioner level, an origin in experiential truth. They were raised to the ideal levels at the university and mixed with research to give them validity but lost their direct usability because they became abstractions. As an elevated abstraction, such an element is better stated and associated with theory but difficult to learn and even more difficult to translate back into behavior. It is a principle to guide behavior, a verbalization. Do principles and verbalizations guide behavior? How can we get students to apply them? To learn them and incorporate them into their own behavior?

As early as we professionally can, we must let the student practice teaching but control that practice so that we reinforce only those initial behaviors we want reinforced. Professional education aspirants energetically enter the college and are quite anxious to begin to learn. We should extract from the methods courses that kind of vocational or vocabulary information about teaching (a custodian cleans; a school is usually organized in grades; PTA stands for parent-teacher association); a "schools are," "children are," "teachers are" level of information. This can be correlated with observation. We can impact the student with this crucial introductory information.

The observer-learner should see many teacher models. He must be brought to a point of understanding that there is good behavior and bad and then presented with a simple, typical behavior model for his initial teaching experience. He should behave, in a microteaching or controlled practice teaching situation, following this model, and have reinforced the vocational teaching behaviors that professionals want reinforced. He does not scowl at children, talk too much, overuse a text. This model should be extracted from the best of practitioner behavior and mixed with certain behavioral information about teaching extracted from the methods courses (the use of materials, for example). The student is delighted with the model as he unconsciously realizes it represents a systematic summation of the very best of overt teaching behaviors.

In this simple-but-best model, did we change any previously emotionalized behaviors? That is doubtful. But in the very best reinforcement–extinction style we limit behavior and immediately reinforce that which has been practiced, through not necessarily chosen, by the individual. The profession has selected!

Inevitably, in the application of a controlled model, an actor steps out and personally behaves. He must be brought to a conscious realization of this personal behavior—what he does as he practices the vocational model. He must be shown that he is defensive, autocratic, permissive, mature, or immature. These are personality behavior stances and *are* transferred to teaching behavior. Perhaps an Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, an MMTAI, or a value test can further implement an understanding of this personal dimension. Teachers must understand their personal reactions, and frankly, only they can change these behaviors.

In these initial applications we will find those who cannot properly behave vocationally because of personal behavior. Autocratic and defensive behavior and feelings of inadequacy may be so great as to sharply interfere with vocational behavior. The stresses and strains of this first microleadership experience may interfere with normal teaching behavior, and the teacher misbehaves by defensively withdrawing, retreating into infantile or rigid patterns of behavior or becoming angry. These behaviors help screen candidates.

After telling-observation and microteaching which conforms to the initial behavior model, we extend and broaden the student teaching experience. There are some very important crucial concepts to teach and vocational behaviors to solidify and broaden. The collation of the best initial teaching behaviors is shown the supervising teacher, and, as it is a systematic guideline, he, too, can follow—or ensure his student's following. It is still simple enough to follow and keep the chicken patch in order, a very essential first step in teaching and entirely divorced from learning. It is behavior.

Then we place the student teacher in a group situation. We wait for developments. The student teacher fundamentally organizes the group for instruction, implements that instruction, and even evaluates that instruction. He applies the model to all teaching arenas, *acting like a teacher*. And then—

> Disadvantaged George eats the hamster food, urinates in the corner, and runs from the classroom.
>
> Jennifer asks about the nature of man and the resultant relationship to art form.
>
> Small Max still can't follow a sequence, is always behind at least one kick in the hucklebuck, thinks a symbol is a musical instrument, and sucks his thumb and daydreams; and his father comes roaring into the classroom demanding an explanation of the reading methods that are failing on his son.

And the principal has migraines and insists on absolute quiet in the whole school.

And a new discovery about the brain is made in California, and new math must be implemented, and the room lacks sunlight and is cold. And cold and frightening becomes the teaching act.

Development has occurred.

The student realizes that the initial teaching behavior model is very usable for fundamental situations in the teaching arena but has definite limits and perhaps is applicable only after professional analysis. It is a very simple prescription for a general situation. Its use is a decision. True, full professional practice is situation analysis and decision making for every classroom situation, not just general ones.

Teacher candidates, then, are ready to be introduced to the perceptual skills necessary for situation analysis, to the ethics of decisions. There is need for an extensive theoretical and conceptual base on which to make *good* decisions. We must help them identify the funded behavioral referents of the profession, the timing of decisions—or true professional role behavior.

Reach for the shelf and dust off the major core of the former methods work: those crucial concepts remaining about human behavior and learning and the extensive materials and procedures that implement learning. The need is there. It is time for building the conceptual base for full professional behavior.

THE INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCE

The development of professional behavior is preceded by understanding of personal behavior and a base of vocational behavior and information. Professional behavior is continuous and grows. It is clinical in nature and is based, in its broadest sense, on personal autonomy. Traditionally, the student teacher is still in someone else's classroom. Even though he is swiftly and meaningfully learning the crucial concepts of learning and behavior and applying them, he is not solely responsible for his decisions.

The developmental period of internship, the final phase of a teacher education program designed to instill professional behavior, must follow student teaching and should be a year in length. It must be a period of continued growth and guidance—in the community, and yet connected with the university. It can be a time when content finally is personally and satisfactorily applied; a time for interns to interact with many people from the community and university. It is a time alone and yet in the professional community; a time of autonomy and yet help.

But the analysis is not yet complete. The professional development is not yet explained.

We have merely alluded to the personal behavior, saying it is obvious that the most bizarre personal behavior will make itself manifest early in the candidacy and will be excluded. We have spoken briefly of the vocational, giving hints about its overt boundaries, and have stated that the professional is the most complex and final dimension of behaviors—the end that has escaped us and the most difficult to discuss.

Yet, interestingly enough, the professional dimension is clearly visible in the methods and foundations courses as we scan course outlines:

Concepts about individual differences
Learning theories
Social stratification ideas
The history of Western civilization and education
Recent research in growth and development.

All are examples of concepts about learning and the profession of teaching. They were important concepts but largely unlearned.

The level of our understanding of concepts determines the level of our incorporation of the concepts into our behavior. To develop this understanding we first give the student a model of teaching behavior that he can follow exactly. He will then move to a level of development where he understands that people are devastatingly different and wants to understand those differences, theoretically and realistically. He begins to reach for theories, understandings, concepts, research about procedures and people so that he can begin to base his behavior on the best of authority and truth. He reaches for this best in internship as consultants, seminar professors, and peers foster or force the reach.

Controlling behavior is no simple derivative from knowing how to behave. The developmental year of internship gives us the people, resources, and time to foster, not control, the behavior, because professional behavior is many-faceted and finally autonomous. Professional behavior can be guided, can be open to analysis during internship; and, as a result of such guidance and analysis, a professional way of behaving that is ideal for the profession can be instilled.

THE CLINICAL CYCLE

From the simple vocational model of initial teaching behavior used both in observation and student teaching, we moved to internship. Vocational behaviors were reinforced and instilled by adherence to a model. Personal, or irrational, effects on this model were analyzed. The conceptual base for the professional dimension is begun both from experience and directed seminar study.

The decisions isolated during observations, from which were extracted the simple behavior model, now form the basis for a true clinical internship. We can foster the rational behavior of the intern by having him question and test his decisions. This is the final behavior we seek.

Testing decisions implies a continually changing and broadening conceptual base for the decisions. The intern *tests* and *reads* and *listens* and *completes* the funded content base of the profession as he is testing it and gaining the experience to make it meaningful to him. During this same time of clinical behavior, teaching consultants from community and university still function to help the intern continue to develop personally, vocationally, and in a broad range of professional behaviors.

This chapter has not been an attack on our methodological and laboratory experience. It suggests a reboxing combined with some strategy changes. The reboxing is concerned with including teaching behavior in methods courses and using this as the initial base for student teaching practice. Next comes the rest of the method—that conceptual base for learning—which forms the basis for the decisions made during internship. The extended period for development possible in the framework of the internship gives us time, personnel, systematic organization of content, and autonomous community place to properly help teachers develop full professional behavior.

CHAPTER VI

The Supervision of Intern Teachers

The intern as a beginning teacher faces a seemingly overwhelming task. There are so many variables involved in his instructional tasks that it is conceivable he would throw up his hands in despair and withdraw in full retreat from teaching were he to realize the full range of understandings and the skills necessary to these tasks. That he does not withdraw is probably due more to his ignorance of the factors involved than to his courage. It is because the nature of instruction is so formidable that supervision is stressed so much by teacher educators in the development and induction of the intern into the profession.

Supervision is not at all a new invention. Beginning teachers were "supervised" long before the concept of the internship in teaching was developed. So, too, were student teachers. In fact, the statement made in the last sentence of the preceding paragraph can as well be made about student teaching. Supervision is a very important aspect of the development and induction of the student teacher into the profession. So why the fuss here? Why devote these pages to supervision? Is there a difference between the supervision of student teachers and beginning teachers on the one hand and intern teachers on the other?

TRADITIONAL SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

In taking a look at traditional supervisory practices of student teachers and beginning teachers, we need to differentiate on two fronts regarding their inadequacies. One deals with insufficient numbers of supervisory personnel and the other with modes of supervision which are either no longer pertinent to today's needs or which operate in less than optimal conditions.

Supervision and Beginning Teachers

Many of the challenges of supervising intern teachers stem from present practices of supervising beginning teachers. Only a few school districts provide continuing support for beginning teachers through the first year of service. In many districts, first-year teachers receive inadequate support at best. All too often, the supervisor for new teachers is burdened with from fifty to seventy classrooms, far too many to provide consistent and meaningful assistance.

A critical look at practice across America reveals that the situation is more bleak than the profession cares to admit publicly. Great numbers of

200,000 new teachers each year are assigned to convenient isolation chambers. A cursory bit of observation and evaluation is all one finds when tenure appointments must be made. Tragically, supervision for tenure is too exclusively evaluation. It is rarely a part of a realistic professional growth pattern extending through to retirement.

Even passing familiarity with the educational scene indicates that one possible cause of this unsettling picture is insufficient supervisory personnel, in turn related to a paucity of dollars. Another is the idea that student teaching prepares teachers so adequately that cursory tenure observation and evaluation suffices. Still another, but more crucial, aspect is outmoded or inadequately conceptualized modes of supervision.

Perhaps it can be seen that none of these causes for inadequate supervision of beginning teachers stands completely unsupported by the others. The most crucial of these causes, however, lies with inadequately conceptualized modes of supervision conjoined with a teaching milieu which allows an incomplete development of the teacher.

First it may be instructive to inquire into student teaching and how its typical modes of supervision contribute to a realistic professional growth pattern and how they do not.

Supervision and Student Teachers

Student teaching provides an apprentice-type introduction to teaching. Why is this so? Traditionally, a single student teacher is assigned to a supervising teacher for a period of time of up to a semester. Sometimes two such assignments are utilized. But essentially we have isolated a duo, consisting of a student teacher and his supervising teacher, one of whom is to receive an orientation to actual classroom behavior. The *supervision* is intense, sometimes offensive in excessive domination, and is concerned with the classroom goals which are set by the supervising teacher. The brevity of the experience precludes the attainment of autonomy. The student teacher never has, indeed cannot have, the opportunity to be responsible, educationally and legally, for the classroom to which he is assigned. He is not meant to act autonomously and he doesn't. Consequently, he cannot develop the kinds of sharpened professional awareness of obligations and supporting behavior which can come only from autonomy. He is, literally, a student.

Fortunately for teacher education, hundreds of supervising teachers are aware of their responsibility to help a young candidate become a teacher in his own right. Fewer supervising teachers are demonstrating the "Now, listen to me; let me show you; forget all that garbage" syndrome so common not too long ago.

Greater numbers of supervising teachers have begun to provide multimodels of teaching behavior—their own model supplemented by observation of the specific behavior of colleagues teaching in the same environment. Many of them attempt team instruction with the student teacher so that a methodology is demonstrated from team planning while the student teacher functions concurrently as a teaching assistant in the same lesson. The two partners critique the lesson and generate the next learning activities. As the student becomes more knowledgeable and assured, he assumes greater initiative for the evaluative lead in the follow-up conference. Supervision in this context becomes a counseling or mirroring function. This valuable conversation, occurring daily during student teaching, is not a part of the beginning experience of most teachers.

It is perhaps obvious that the great faith placed in student teaching—that it develop lifelong, realistic professional growth patterns—is impossible to verify. Even when supervising teachers can provide multimodels of teaching behavior, the lack of classroom autonomy for the student teacher is a significant detriment. And it is questionable whether a semester or less of ideal student teaching supervision is enough to build all the skills, attitudes, and behaviors necessary for continuing professional growth and revitalization, especially when the fate of the first-year teacher is relegation to the isolation chamber.

Such misplaced faith in student teaching does not at all negate the importance of this phase of professional preparation. It is one thing for school districts to behave as though student teaching is all that the teacher-to-be needs in order to function effectively and another to see it as an important but still incomplete element in that teacher's preparation. The hope cannot emanate from student teaching alone; its wellsprings must be broadened.

From the preceding discussion we can begin to construct a picture of supervisory modes which permeate present practices and of supervisory modes as they should be.

Need for a New Model

Traditionally, supervision is concerned with seeing to it that the curriculum established in the school is implemented. Given enough time and a realistic load, the function of the traditional supervisor is to work with the teacher so that the teacher becomes more effective and efficient in implementing the objectives of the school, in ensuring that children learn. The traditional supervisor pays little attention to teaching per se. All too often he has specific views of what constitutes education, and his efforts are largely given over to proselyting these. Such a model is not unique to education. It has its root in industry where the product and the means for achieving it were authoritatively established and the worker had needs, interests, and aspirations of his own which were largely ignored. He had to fit into the enterprise as established from above. He had nothing to contribute to the general design of the enterprise. Consequently, there was little need to do more with him than to tell him his responsibilities and to evaluate periodically how well he was achieving the goals of the enterprise.

It is difficult to deny that such a model guides the behavior of supervisors in many school districts and of many supervising teachers of student teachers. That it is mechanistic and dehumanizing is evident. That it fails to provide student teachers and beginning teachers with the tools and understandings necessary for continuing and independent growth and development is also obvious. And this is true no matter how often the beginning or student teacher is supervised.

Any internship program that utilizes such a supervisory model as its base may as well not exist. What is badly needed is a new coalition of school systems, professional organizations, and teacher educators to develop modern patterns of induction of new teachers and of obligation to continuing inservice growth. The paid internship provides teacher education with a unique means of forming such a partnership between the school systems and the university. Legally these partners agree to create teaching stations that may be utilized from year to year for the purpose of preparing a better beginning teacher—a beginner skilled and experienced through decision making in his own autonomous instructional environment.

THE SUPERVISION OF INTERNS

Perhaps because the internship is a relatively new concept in teacher preparation, it has served to focus analysis, by schools and universities, on traditional modes of inducting new teachers into the profession. Such analysis and redefinition often have practical side effects. The internship programs that remain operational beyond initial funding tend to be those that have innovated, planned, implemented, evaluated, and improved the nature of supervision for intern teachers. Few programs can withstand the criticism of neglected, unsupported interns.

But what is the nature of such intern teacher support? Which aspects are apparently basic? How does such teacher support differ from the traditional views of supervision?

There is one crucial way in which newer modes of teacher support differ from the traditional. They recognize and insist on working within the context of the idea that the teacher is a person with idiosyncratic needs, interests, and aspirations. They realize that such a concept has implications, not only in possibly unique contributions by the teacher to the curriculum, but also for the teaching process itself. If the teacher is indeed as idiosyncratic as students of personality say all of us are, then he cannot help but have *his* instructional behaviors and professional insights affected by *his* personal hopes, needs, and interests. Traditional supervision, in ignoring this concept, not only stifles the intern's development but interferes with significant pupil learning. By saying all teaching must be akin to some implicit or explicit model in the supervisor's mind, traditional supervision infers that any teacher can be put into any situation and succeed. This should not be surprising. After all, if one can forget that teachers are people, and therefore quite a bit different from one another, one can easily go a step further and ignore the fact that success is often dependent on consonance between the teacher and the school environment. Consequently, it is a simple matter to demand teaching behavior patterned after a specified model. But, in so doing, traditional supervision mitigates against the kind of intern growth that must continue through the life of the teacher when there is no further supervisory support.

To be more explicit, the process of supervision must—

1. Allow for *individualization of instruction* so that each intern can continue the process of identification with the profession in ways peculiar to him, including attention to cognitive and affective learnings, through the process of inquiry.
2. Allow for the use of a *variety of teaching strategies and methods* in order to meet the varying demands of child learning styles and of teaching particular subject matters, skills, levels of thinking, and the like.
3. Allow for *individualization of teaching style* consonant with the intern's personal and professional frames of reference.
4. Allow for the concept of *professional autonomy* and freedom from paternalistic authoritarianism.
5. Allow for *continued professional development* from practicum-like experiences, through the internship, and on into the life work of the teacher, either with the help of a supervisor or peer or on one's own.

If this process of supervision is to have any possible validity, all points within it need to be interrelated, consistent, and congruent with one another. They should not only indicate guidelines for the supervisor as he works with the intern, they should also form a viable basis for the intern's earlier practicum experiences—in clinic, in microteaching, and in student teaching. Their validity rests also on whether the process allows for continued professional growth when the internship is completed and the teacher is left more or less to his own devices.

Opportunity for Identification

The intern in his preintern preparation has been attempting to achieve identity as a teacher. Through a process some call identification, he has been forming and continues to form ideals, attitudes, and ways of behaving which can be said to characterize in his mind some ideal of "teacher." Specific individuals may provide him with this concept of teacher, or perhaps he may attempt to meld a conglomerate of ideal characteristics from a number of sources—people, real and fictional; learning theory; instructional theory; and the like. As he attempts to behave in accordance with these newly acquired attitudes and ideals, he usually comes into conflict with some aspect of vocational reality. Such conflict may result from the sociological realities of the intern's school, from a trait in his personality, from pupils in his class who do not react as he predicted, or from a superior who demands certain things of him. He seeks to regain equilibrium, to solve the problem, to mitigate the conflict within the professional framework he has been constructing or perhaps within his personal frame of reference. If he succeeds, he adjusts one or both of these frameworks or, in the case of unreasoned demands, he might simply go through the required motions. When an ideal or attitude "fits," as evidenced by consistency in his behavior vis-a-vis the attitude or ideal, we can say that the intern has internalized it, perhaps permanently, perhaps to be challenged and restructured at some later date.

The important point in this is that the ideals and attitudes and consequent behaviors which the intern selects, incorporates, and utilizes must of necessity be *his* own and peculiar to him. There is no other way if the intern does indeed construct his own professional and personal frames of reference. Telling him what to do, how to teach, may have some value, but only if *he* perceives it as being germane to his becoming a professional. The supervisor who views the search for identity or self-realization as being crucial plans, sets the stage, and interacts with the intern in such a way as to induce him, it is hoped, some day to achieve this goal.

It is important to note that the supervisor does more than create the proper feeling tone necessary for identification to take place. Close attention is also required to modes of cognitive interaction which can help the intern to assess and change the subject matter he is constantly creating for himself through the process involved in achieving identity. When the intern is confronted with an experience he does not comprehend in full, it is because the patterns in the framework he has created cannot make sense of it. The supervisor helps him expand his present patterns of responding to stimuli so that he can understand the new experience. The supervisor also aids in creating new patterns of responses by encouraging the intern to suggest and then test alternative courses of action. Such patterns permit the intern to understand the world of teacher to ever-increasing degrees and with greater accuracy. This structuring of life's stimuli is essential to the achievement of eventual professional selfhood.

Individualization of Supervision

Unlike the rationale which seemingly undergirds traditional supervision, the above supervisory stance accepts the individuality of the intern and looks upon him as being active and purposeful in his professional interactions. It recognizes that the intern may be quite eager to accept as well as be resistant to changes in his frames of reference. It refuses to accept the idea that the intern is a passive-like container, responding mechanically to compensatory and punitive stimuli, waiting to be filled with knowledge selected by the supervisor.

The supervisor's interactions with the intern are attempts at leading the intern to a structuring and restructuring of his environment. Such structuring enables him to achieve a level of self-identity consistent *with* the degree of frankness and accuracy with which he faces and pursues his professional life. This leading of the intern infers that the supervisor's interactions are essentially elicitive. That is, the supervisor aims to elicit from the intern specific ways of teacher behaving which are consonant with the intern's search for identity and self-realization. The supervisor is not a judge but a colleague. It is in this respect that the supervisor encourages individualization of teaching style congruent with the intern's frame of reference.

Working with an intern from such a supervisory posture has important instructional effects for the intern. It is assumed that the supervisor communicates to the intern the process that is being used. (In fact, this process, resembling inquiry,[1] will be familiar since it is largely identical to the one used with the intern in his preintern experiences as well as one he has learned about in learning theory.) Not only is the process communicated but the rationale as well. And the intern quite likely recognizes it as the one which the supervisor uses to further the supervisor's own continuing search for identity. It is not unreasonable to expect the intern to understand the process well enough to have incorporated it to some extent into his frames of reference. In this way it becomes part of his teaching behavior. In this way basic steps are taken by the intern to ensure that his instruction is so individualized that each pupil's search for identity is also enhanced; that he seeks through a variety of teaching strategies and methods to meet the varying demands both of child learning styles and of teaching such things as particular subject matters, skills, and levels of thinking. And, of course, the task of the supervisor is to enhance the possibility of this occurring.

Professional Autonomy

At this point it may well be asked if the model of supervision suggested isn't also pertinent for student teachers. It is. But there is an ingredient lacking in student teaching which is vital to the achievement of identity and which is present in the internship. That ingredient, as we have already hinted, is autonomy.

While it may be true that no one is ever completely autonomous, the intern is much more so than the student teacher. The intern bears primary and consistent responsibility for his classroom, both educationally and legally. He is not a student assigned teaching responsibilities by a supervising teacher. He is a paid, certified teacher, drawing upon his professional frame of reference to develop the soundest classroom program for his pupils that he can possibly design. With and without the help of the supervisor, he is free to experiment with this or that aspect of his framework, to plan alternative courses of action, to search for new insights, to develop a style of teaching congruent with his personality and with his professional frame of reference, and to alter any of these as the necessity becomes apparent.

Parenthetically, it is also well to bear in mind that, when autonomy is thrust on the beginning teacher, fear may result. Such a feeling is natural in every new situation, even when autonomy is demanded. A colleague-type supervisor can give the support the intern teacher needs to vitiate such fear.

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[1] Thelen, H. A. *Education and the Human Quest.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960. p. 89.

It is also necessary for the supervisor to understand the importance of autonomy in the development of a professional teacher. Teaching can never achieve the status of a profession so long as its members acquiesce so readily to authoritarian tendencies and dictation by the past.

> We . . . call those tendencies in education authoritarian which, by blocking the road of inquiry, prevent freedom of intelligent choice; which, by discouraging critical participation in the process of learning, obstruct individual growth; which, by imposing dogmas of doctrine or program, blind students to relevant alternatives and encourage conformity rather than diversity; which, in short, fail to recognize that the supreme and ultimate authority, the final validating source of all other authorities in human experience, is the self-critical authority of critical method—or intelligence.[2]

Thus, we need to ask whether the process of supervision lends itself to a scientifically based process for determining instructional decisions so that continuous professional development beyond the level of the beginning teacher is assured and enhanced. It is important to remember that even a high-quality internship program does no more than prepare superior *beginning* teachers. The process by which the intern develops his expertise must consequently be applied assiduously throughout his preparation on a conscious level so that he not only becomes one with the process but understands it as well. In this way, once removed from the help and supervision of those aiding his development, he can continue to apply the process consciously and thus contribute to his growth in professional dimensions.

THE INTERN SUPERVISOR

Supervision is concerned with influencing professional behavior, as we have implied, through causing a change of some sort in the intern as a person. Such a change comes basically through the interactions of two adults—the intern and the supervisor.

What does this mean for the supervisor's behavior? One does not *tell* the intern, one does not always impatiently *show;* supervision is not realistically *forced behavior.* Assuming (a) that a meaningful sequence of pre-intern experiences equivalent to present-day foundations, methodology, and student teaching has already occurred; (b) that the intern candidate has begun to identify the vocational behaviors of teaching; (c) that the intern teacher has initiated some fundamental processes for self-evaluation; and (d) that the cyclic behavior of clinical environments is understood—assuming all of these points, the intern must be approached as a professional colleague with the legal right to make decisions about children, instruction, materials, facilities, and evaluation.

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[2] Hook, Sidney. "The Danger of Authoritarian Attitudes in Education." *Issues in Education.* (Edited by Bernard Johnson.) Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1964. pp. 116-27.

The growth of candidate responsibility and the diminishing need for supervision and guidance is the pervading theme for work with intern teachers. Supervisors must be able to support the decisions of the intern teacher as often as possible and be skillful in helping him adjust or modify behavior without jeopardizing growth toward independent teacher behavior. Patience is a virtue to be practiced by supervisors of interns. We all are conditioned to *tell*, to *show*, to *demand;* but can we teach our supervisors to help interns discover the alternatives in teaching?

Another important characteristic of the successful supervisor is the ability to develop colleague relationships with a number of interns simultaneously. This is a demanding skill quite unique in education. Consider what is involved for the supervisor who works *with* five beginning teachers weekly within *their* legally autonomous decision domain. As indicated earlier, it means cooperative standard setting with each intern teacher without violating his growth pace. It also means pacing one's professional model and aspirations for each intern. Expectations must be developed *with* each intern teacher so that distant goals and immediate objectives result uniquely with each candidate.

Being a professional colleague does not necessitate a "buddy-buddy" relationship. When the focus remain upon the analysis of the teaching-learning environmental system—the functions, interrelationships, and roles of children, teachers, parents, and others—then it can remain relatively unencumbered by the kinds of sentimentalities which frequently color objective appraisals in education. Nor is a colleague a mother or father figure. The focus must not be on paternalistic authoritarianism but on educational input and output with maximum acceptance of the personal dimension of each participant.

A colleague relationship does not preclude decision making by the supervisor. Colleagues often share decision-making and implementation functions when the objective is creation of better learning activities for children. A skillful intern supervisor will help the intern appraise his needs and establish priorities for changing behavior. But the ability to stimulate change without destroying the colleague stance is essential. The manner in which support and positive or objective feedback reaches the intern is crucial to the professional dialogue. The candor of the communication pattern is often a measure of the supervisor's ability to encourage an adequate growth rate for each intern. The supervisor must be able to mirror clearly the intern's behavior so that the intern will read it accurately and make the necessary adjustments in his instructional modes.

Characteristics of Supervisors

What does this mean for selecting and preparing intern supervisors? The supervisor must possess certain personal characteristics and certain professional and technical knowledge.[3] Probably the most important characteristic for a supervisor to possess is a well-integrated personality. It appears difficult to work in a colleague relationship with someone, with the purpose of aiding that person to achieve personal and professional integration, if the supervisor himself has not achieved a reasonable degree of self-realization; is not still searching, self-confidently, to achieve fuller integration; and is not sensitive to the difficulties inherent in the process.

Supervisors of interns are models of that teacher behavior which searches always for better questions about human growth and development, teaching and learning, materials and facilities, diagnosis and evaluation. They personify the quest for better approaches to standard routines, more imaginative solutions to persistent problems, and more creative designs for future programming.

The intern supervisor should not be selected as a reward for long years of teaching service or even for success as a teacher. The supervisor should evidence an attitude toward growth within himself, exemplify a sensitivity to the positive and negative attributes of each candidate, and possess the ability to accommodate this ledger of qualities. Frequently, the intern supervisor represents extensive personal and professional experiences of such variety and success as to initially prevent the intern's identification with him. It is necessary for the supervisor to learn how to utilize his talent and background without overwhelming the teacher candidate.

Preparation of the Supervisor

Because the supervisor must work within the context of the intern teacher's aspirations, needs, and interests, he needs skill in clarifying intern values through unthreatening questions and in analyzing voice inflection, gestures, and other nonverbal cues. He needs skill in utilizing or constructing relatively objective mirroring tools to help analyze certain teaching behaviors.[4] His sensitivity to the psychic needs of the intern will tell him that such utilization and analysis are agreed upon previously with the intern. His knowledge of effective teaching will tell him that attention to process is important but also that effectiveness can be judged only in relation to the predetermined instructional goals set by the intern.

The better versed he is in research reports regarding the teaching-learning process, the more effective he will be in his use of tools for analyzing teaching and in aiding the intern to organize his teaching patterns into an understandable framework.

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[3] For a more complete summary of such technical, professional, and personal characteristics and knowledge see: Berman, L. M., and Usery, Mary Lou. *Personalized Supervision.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1960; and Raths, James, and Leeper, Robert R., editors. *The Supervisor: Agent for Change in Teaching.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1966.

[4] Raths and Leeper, *ibid.*

Personal interaction between intern and supervisor is the basic unit of communication. This much attention needs to be given to the psychodynamics involved in conferring. And such communication can be helped through the use in the classroom, by supervisor and intern, of technological devices—sound and video tape recorders, movies, and the like. Training in their use would be mandatory for the supervisor who would in turn pass it on to the intern for his continuing self-improvement.

Preparing a person to function as an intern supervisor becomes a kind of individualized internship in itself. In fact, teacher education would do well to create consistent models of internship for and among its own faculty. In this way, through example, it would be simple to demonstrate to new teacher candidates the very nature of *becoming* a teacher or supervisor.

The internship concept also has relevance for the multitude of graduate students who serve as student teaching coordinators across the nation. And it is particularly useful for building up skills for supervising teachers and any person new to the guidance of others. Orienting such people to the supervision role can occur through faculty seminars, through dialogues as two intern supervisors work with several interns periodically, and through team experiences in the clinical setting with preinterns and intern teachers.

Task of the Supervisor

Anyone who has had a fair amount of contact with experienced classroom teachers knows that the American teacher is professionally lonely—literally starved for an adequate supporting dialogue paralleling his teaching experience. Intern supervision can successfully fill this void with meaningful and consistently supportive conversation.

The initiation of the topics to discuss, the foci upon concerns, the direction and implementation of changed behavior remain the choice of each intern teacher. But there is someone experienced, knowledgeable, and resourceful to talk with as often as needed to reinforce strengths and modify and even eliminate ineffectual teaching patterns. The talk between intern and supervisor can be superficial or profound. Quality is quite likely to be present if the dialogue is concerned with analyzing the teaching model in relation to the educational objectives set up by the intern. Depth of dialogue is another aspect of quality and is determined by the readiness of the intern.

The nature and extent of resources furnished by each supervisor are also determined by the intern candidate. It is his right to select or request specific types of aid in his becoming a teacher. If he elects to have periodic demonstrations of instructional strategy, then this type of help must be delivered by the supervisor or other specialized personnel who may be appropriately selected. The supervisor must furnish a believable model for the intern to observe, a model with sufficient flexibility so the intern may adapt or develop compatible alternatives specifically applicable to his own teaching stances.

The supervisor who is just *available* cannot provide a challenging mirror for the independent intern teacher. Like so many good teachers that were left alone by building principals, these *good* teachers plateau too early in their careers. Many good teachers freely admit that they could have grown more had assistance been developed for them. Being-available and just-passing-through models are not sufficient for reaching new levels of aid for beginning teachers. Intern teachers wish sustained help at times—the roll-up-your-sleeves model of assistance. Help with diagnosis, grouping procedures, testing, conferring, instruction, evaluation, development of materials, atmosphere analysis, teacher-behavior analysis, and child study are but a few requests listed in the supervision data supporting internships.

Occasionally, the intern teacher will desire relief so he can study another setting, visit an outstanding teaching example, or finish a research resulting from the individualized design for his internship. A supervisor can supply the necessary relief on appointment. Too few experienced teachers utilize such a vehicle for professional growth. But a caution should be sounded: The supervisor who frequently sends or takes his intern to see another environment or another model without skillful relationship to the state of intern growth may do serious damage to the colleague set. It is necessary for the intern to perceive that visiting other situations will quite likely advance his own.

There is one important goal which emerging programs of teacher preparation assiduously seek—the elusive link between practice and theory. The practice-theory link may well be forged from those internship models which survive development and become mature and permanent paths to initial teaching status. The fashionable sequential model of psychology-learning theory, social foundations of education theory, methodological theory, then actual practice hardly offers a reasonable approach to the linkage. Teacher education has capstoned its models with the realism of practice but unfortunately has neglected the recycling to the theory base with any consistency.

On the other hand, internship supervision represents a whole year of conversation with many opportunities for relating practice and theory. Success depends upon the ability of the supervisor and the readiness of each intern teacher. The intensity of focus possible between two colleagues working within an autonomous environment can prove refreshing to those participating in internship innovations. It surpasses the classroom example which is discussed in Education 300 on Tuesday morning. It surpasses it because the example the two colleagues discuss is alive with all components within the purview of both intern and intern supervisor.

ROLE THEORY IN SUPERVISION

It is fairly obvious by now that our approach to supervision is a multifaceted one. Instead of stating that the supervisor should provide only descriptive feedback or indulge only in interpretive activities for the teacher, we hold that the approach will vary with the desires and needs of the intern as he has determined them with the supervisor. What is deliberatively missing is the traditional authoritarianism and paternalism. These have no place in our approach.

Despite all our good intentions, our skill in conferring, in creating frameworks, in utilizing tools for analyzing verbal and nonverbal interactions, in using technology, in understanding the teaching-learning settings, in demonstrating teaching competence and the process for achieving self-realization and identity—despite all of these and more, we can still largely fail in our task, even with the best of interns. That is, we can fail if we ignore the apparently valid findings of research in role theory. Chapter VII discusses these findings in relation to the entire intern process. It is important for our purposes to make relevant connections between some of these findings and the task of the supervisor.

If the behavior of any individual is influenced to some degree both by his expectations and by the expectations of others in his social system, then it is not enough for the supervisor alone to perceive his role as sketched in these pages. The intern's perceptions of the supervisor's role must overlap with those of the supervisor if a feeling of satisfaction with the work achieved is to prevail.

The concept of achieving identity, or self-realization, of aiming to become a self-actualizing professional through some process like inquiry, must be an expectation that is held jointly by intern and supervisor. The more the process and its goal are built into the preintern experiences, the greater the likelihood that they will be assimilated by the intern to the point where his behavior is consonant with this expectation and this expectation is congruent with the behavior he perceives in the supervisor.

An intensive, penetrating study of role relationships may ultimately contribute to our understanding of which specific supervisory actions will produce specified and desired results in the intern. As yet, there is no real support from any research which shows a relationship between certain supervisory behaviors and teaching practices. We feel one important reason for this is that, for too long, supervisory behavior ignored the importance of the colleague stance. It did not comprehend that a change in teaching behavior comes about as a result of the interaction of two minds who consider each other with respect and humility and whose thinking and efforts are aimed at the fullest possible continuing growth of a professional worker.

CHAPTER VII

Role Analysis Applied to Internship Processes

What are the dynamics of the internship process? What new roles or redefinitions of present roles are being developed in internship programs? What expectations do individuals in specific positions have for the behavior of others in similar positions or different positions? What role conflict problems exist? What problems can be anticipated? These are questions which deal with the realities of the internship process. They are questions which need to be studied systematically. Role theory can provide useful conceptual tools to aid in this study.

ROLE THEORY

The concept of role occupies a significant position in the literature of the social sciences. Analysis of behavior at the levels of the individual, the group, and society are frequently cast within frameworks which use an approach to the nature and function or role as their central concept. Because this concept is employed by writers in several disciplines, differences exist in the way in which it is defined. The specific approach to role theory that is used depends upon the focus of a particular discipline and the problems which are of central importance within it.

While an awareness of differences in the definition of the role concept is necessary to an understanding of its use in both theory and research, it is useful also to identify the common elements which characterize the formulations of writers dealing with the concept. Gross, Mason, and McEachern suggest that the three basic ideas which appear in most conceptualizations are that individuals in (a) *social locations* (b) *behave* with reference to (c) *expectations.* There are two major points of emphasis within these common elements. The first is that human behavior does not occur at random; the behavior of an individual is influenced to some extent by his expectations and by the expectations of others in the group or society of which he is a part. The second is that expectations are assigned to individuals on the basis of their positions or locations in systems of social relationships. Both factors are central components of most role formulations, whether the formulations focus on the individual, the group, or society.[1]

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[1] Gross, Neal; Mason, Ward S.; and McEachern, Alexander. *Explorations in Role Analysis.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958. p. 3.

Studies Based on Role Theory

In recent years, several investigations have been conducted for the purpose of determining the degree of consensus on role definitions that exist in different social settings as well as the implications of various degrees of consensus for position occupants. Getzels and Guba[2] identified the need for empirical studies using the concepts of role conflict in real-life situations and adapted sections of Parsons and Shils' role theory to formulations which were appropriate for empirical work. Their initial study was concerned with examining relationships in the military situation between two organized roles —those of officer and teacher. This included an analysis of the conflict between these roles when held by a single individual and the consequences of conflict for the effective management of one of the roles. The results of their study indicated that the severity of role conflict is dependent upon the relative incompatibility of expectations between roles and the rigor with which expectations are defined (flexible or rigid limits within which expectations must be met). They also found that the greater the intensity of conflict, the greater the ineffectiveness of the individual, and that the intensity of involvement in conflict is related to personal characteristics.

In a more recent report, Getzels[3] has illustrated a number of the pertinent role behaviors and types of conflict in the educational setting by reference to empirical studies. He concludes that recent research indicates the proper functioning of certain role relationships to be dependent upon the degree of overlap in the perception of expectations by the several complementary role incumbents. Investigations have indicated further that when the perception of expectations overlaps, participants in the relationship feel satisfied with the work achieved, no matter what the actual accomplishment; and that when the perception of expectations does not overlap, participants feel dissatisfied.

Twyman and Biddle[4] have reported the results of their study of the role conflict of public school teachers. The study was conducted in an attempt to determine operationally the extent of disagreement among four social positions (teachers, parents, pupils, and school officials) on what teachers do, should do, and should not do. The results indicated that a number of significant disparities exist among teachers, school officials, parents, and pupils over teacher role cognitions. These disparities, which were found for positive norms, negative norms, and for expectations, occurred in a variety of content areas.

In their extensive studies of the school superintendency role, Gross, Mason, and McEachern[5] analyzed four types of consensus. Their primary objectives were to investigate degrees of consensus among superintendents, among school board members, and between these two sets of role definers on the expectations they hold for incumbents of their positions. Differences in the expectations held by position incumbents were demonstrated both with regard to intraposition and interposition consensus.

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[2] Getzels, J. W., and Guba, E. G. "Role, Role Conflict, and Effectiveness." *American Sociological Review* 19: 164-75; April 1954.

[3] Getzels, Jacob W. "Adults in the School and Community." *Readings in the Social Psychology of Education.* (Edited by W. W. Charters, Jr., and N. L. Gage.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1963. pp. 309-18.

[4] Twyman, J. Paschal, and Biddle, Bruce J. "Role Conflict of Public School Teachers." *Journal of Psychology* 55: 183-98; January 1963.

[5] Gross, Mason, and McEachern, *op. cit.*

A Theory of Action

One approach to role theory which can be applied to an analysis of the relationships involved in internship situations is that developed by Parsons and Shils.[6] Their general theory of action identifies and defines the concepts involved in examining group behavior, and provides a framework within which interacting positions can be related and studied.

Parsons and Shils state that the theory of action is a conceptual scheme for the analysis of behavior and that actions occur in constellations which they designate as systems. These systems, representing the three ways in which the elements of action are organized, are:

1. *Personality:* the organized system of orientation and motivation of action of an individual
2. *Social system:* a system organized around the problems inherent in or arising from social interaction
3. *Culture:* beliefs, values, and standards, and the system of symbols that represent them.[7]

Williams summarizes the relationship among these three action systems as follows: "Motivated individuals (personality systems) seeking gratifications and oriented to shared values or standards (culture) thus interact in patterned ways (social systems)."[8] Parsons and Shils further define a social system as a "system of interaction of a plurality of actors in which the action is oriented by rules which are complexes of complementary expectations concerning roles and sanctions."[9]

The point of contact between the individual and the social system is the *role.* This is the most significant unit of social structure, because it defines the individual's participation in a specific social situation. The primary ingredient of the role is the role expectation or pattern of evaluation. Thus, what an individual is expected to do in a given situation, both by himself and by others, constitutes the expectations of that role.

In order for the social system to function, the differentiated roles must be coordinated either negatively, in the sense of avoiding disruptive interference with each other, or positively, in the sense of contributing to the realization of shared collective goals through collaborative activity.

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[6] Parsons, Talcott, and Shils, Edward A., editors. *Toward a General Theory of Action.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951.

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 54-56.

[8] Williams, Robin M. Jr. "The Sociological Theory of Talcott Parsons." *The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons.* (Edited by Max Black.) Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1961. p. 69.

[9] Parsons and Shils, *op. cit.*, p. 195.

In summary, the concepts which have been presented are defined as follows:

> A *position* is the location of an individual or class of individuals in a system of social relationships.
>
> A *role expectation* is an evaluative standard applied to an occupant of a position; i.e., what an individual is expected to do in a given situation, both by himself and by others.
>
> A *role* is a set of expectations applied to an occupant of a particular position.
>
> *Role consensus* exists when similar expectations are held for an occupant of a position.
>
> *Role conflict* exists when contradictory expectations are held for an occupant of a position.

APPLICATION OF INTERACTION CONCEPTS

The basis for the inclusion of internships in the education of teachers is in the assumption that guided, direct experience with a gradual increase in responsibilities is an essential component of the teacher education program. The science of learning provides the principle that an individual learns best when actually involved in achieving his purposes and solving his problems. Thus, the modern concept of direct experience is that it shall provide the prospective teacher with an opportunity to study teaching as he confronts and solves real problems. In internship experiences, positions are created in order to provide guidance for the intern as he learns to integrate theory and practice in assuming the responsibilities of a beginning teacher. Expectations for behavior become attached to the positions involved, thus defining such roles as student teacher, intern, clinical professor, cooperating intern supervisor, school administrator, and others.

Viewed in this way, the internship situation fulfills the definition of a social system as "a system of interaction of a plurality of actors in which the action is oriented by rules which are complexes of complementary expectations concerning roles and sanctions."[10] The relationships among the positions involved can be viewed as an interaction system and the total system can be analyzed within the theoretical framework previously described. Because effective role enactment and effective role relationship appear to be related to consensus on role expectations and clarity of role definition, it is important to examine the expectations which define the roles in internship situations in order to determine the states of consensus which exist on the definition of these roles.[11, 12]

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[10] *Ibid.*

[11] Twyman and Biddle, *op. cit.*, p. 183.

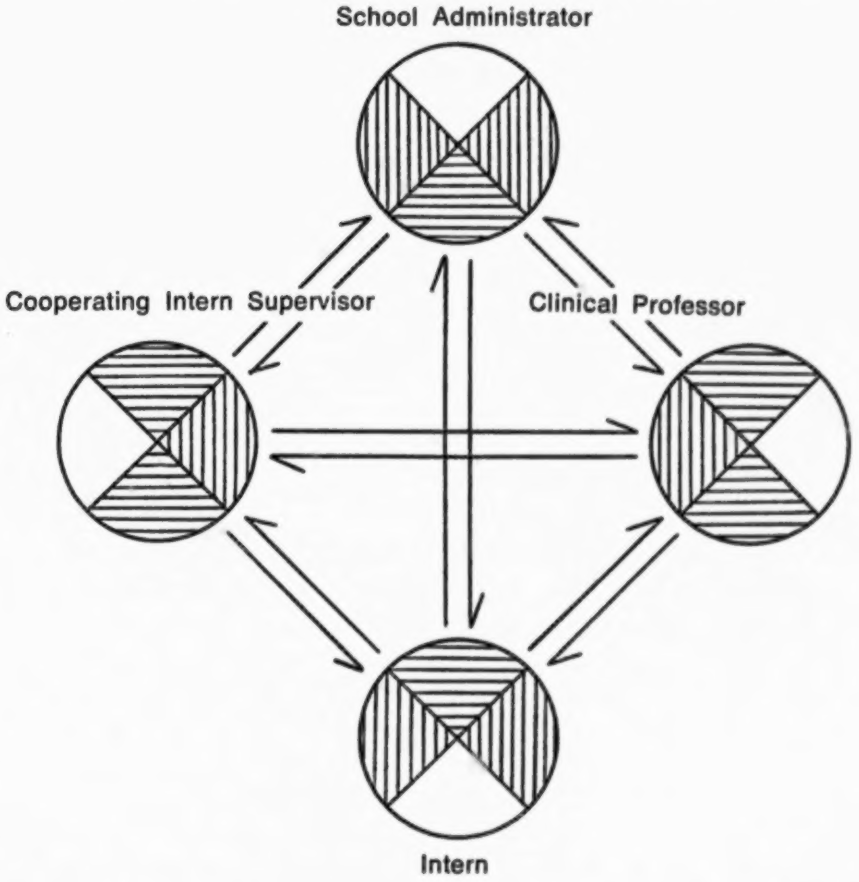
[12] Sarbin, Theodore R. "Role Theory." *Handbook of Social Psychology.* (Edited by Gardner Lindzey.) Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1964. Vol. I, p. 227.

Framework for Viewing Roles

If the relationships among the positions involved in internships in teacher education are to be analyzed within the context of role theory, it is apparent that there is a need for a way of viewing the roles as an interaction system.

Figure I

A SYSTEM MODEL INDICATING SPECIFICATION OF POSITIONS.



The system diagram in Figure I represents one approach to the development of a framework for viewing the relationships among interns, cooperating intern supervisors, clinical professors, and school administrators as an interaction system. The way in which the positions are related is indicated by the double arrows which indicate two-way relationships. Within this framework, each role can be viewed in terms of its relationships to other roles. For example, attention can be focused on consensus or conflict among cooperating intern supervisors, clinical professors, and school administrators on the expectations they hold for interns. Another possibility would be to examine the expectations which are held for cooperating intern supervisors by clinical professors, school administrators, interns, and the cooperating intern supervisors themselves. Additional positions can be added to the framework or substituted for one or more of the positions identified here. As the framework is used to examine the expectations held for various roles, the degree of consensus which exists on role definitions can be assessed. In this way, areas of potential conflict and ambiguity can be identified.

When, for example, contradictory expectations for the intern are held by two or more groups defining the role (e.g., cooperating intern supervisor and clinical professor), the intern is faced with the problem of resolving the conflict. He may do this by shifting from one set of expectations to another as the situation demands, by choosing one set of expectations as the significant frame of reference, or by withdrawing from the situation. To the extent that the intern chooses one set of expectations in preference to others, he will be judged less effective in terms of the expectations held for him by those in other positions.

Gross, Mason, and McEachern[13] suggest that a different type of disagreement regarding role definition may also be significant. This is a disagreement with regard to intensity rather than direction. For example, both cooperating intern supervisor and clinical professor may agree on the direction of a particular expectation, namely, that the intern should be expected to perform a specific function. One of the two of them may feel, however, that the intern "preferably should" while the other feels that he "absolutely must" be expected to perform the function. The intern's actual behavior with regard to this expectation, and the significance of it, will therefore be evaluated quite differently by the cooperating intern supervisor and clinical professor.

In addition, a lack of consensus among the occupants of each of the groups involved can present a different, but no less significant, problem. Sarbin[14] states that variability in expectations among the members of a group reflects an ambiguous role definition. The implications of lack of clarity of role definition seem evident. With regard to a specific function, for example, it will not be possible for interns to know what will be expected of them by cooperating intern supervisors if there is a great deal of variability among cooperating intern supervisors in their expectations regarding a particular function.

Another possible result of lack of consensus among members of the same group is that one group member may hesitate to evaluate negatively another position occupant's behaviors which deviate from his own expectations if he perceives that there is a lack of consensus within his own group with regard to what should be expected.[15] Thus, if cooperating intern supervisors and clinical professors are aware of the variability within their own groups with regard to whether interns should or should not be expected to perform specific functions, they will be uncertain in their evaluations of interns' behavior in performing or not performing these functions.

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[13] Gross, Mason, and McEachern, *op. cit.*, p. 108.

[14] Sarbin, *loc. cit.*

[15] Gross, Mason, and McEachern, *op. cit.*, p. 322.

The study of areas of potential conflict and ambiguity in role relationships can serve as the starting point for planning and implementing ways of bringing about increased clarity and consensus with regard to role definitions.

Studying Role Relationships

Specifying a consistent set of definitions of the components of role theory provides a basis for integrating new knowledge with existing knowledge in the area, as research is carried out within this framework. Often the findings of studies in which role concepts have been used cannot be directly related because the concepts are not clearly defined and the reader does not know whether writers are using the same term to refer to the same or different concepts. The use of a systematic framework as a basis for developing investigations of internship programs can render more meaningful and useful the results of such research.

A variety of possibilities exists for studies which could be designed within the context of role theory for the purpose of adding to existing knowledge about internship processes.[16]

Such studies could shed light on the following questions:

1. What factors are related to differences among holders of the same position as well as different positions in the expectations they have for their roles and for the roles of those with whom they interact in internship situations?
2. What are the responsibilities on which most consensus is held and the responsibilities on which there is disagreement among holders of the same position as well as among holders of different positions?
3. What are the specific behaviors which should or should not be expected of position occupants, and what are those for which consensus is viewed as less essential or nonessential?
4. What are the variables found in the interaction systems of different types of programs, such as those which include both student teaching and internship, or only internship, or which do or do not include tutorial experiences, experience as teacher aides, observation and participation, and others?
5. How do various position occupants perceive the influence on consensus and/or conflict of certain specific activities and procedures operating in the interaction system of an institution, such as—
    a. Meetings with groups or among groups
    b. Supervisory conferences
    c. Student teacher handbooks and directives

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[16] For two examples of exploratory studies using a role analysis design, see: Garland, Colden B. "An Exploration of Role Expectation for Student Teachers: Views of Prospective Student Teachers, Cooperating Teachers, and College Supervisors." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Rochester, N.Y.: University of Rochester, 1964; and Kaplan, Leonard. "An Investigation of the Role Expectation for College Supervisors of Student Teaching as Viewed by Student Teachers, Supervising Teachers, and College Supervisors." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Rochester, N.Y.: University of Rochester, 1966.

   d. Various types of organization for internship: clinical professor as methods course teacher, cooperating intern supervisor as methods course teacher, subject area specialist as clinical professor, clinical associate full time in off-campus center, experience in two or more educational settings, amount of time spent in internship, and others?

6. To what extent are the expectations of each of the position occupants related to such variables as—
   a. Type of educational background
   b. Grade-level preference: elementary, secondary, college
   c. Years of experience in role
   d. Personal characteristics: intelligence, achievement in professional courses, age, sex, and others?
7. How do the expectations held for interns by interns, cooperating intern supervisors, clinical professors, and others in the interaction system compare before and after the internship experience?

STUDY OF ROLES

The need for studies which seek anwers to the aforementioned questions is made more pressing by the increasing proliferation of labels to identify new positions in internship situations. Confusion is created by the use of many different titles to refer to the same or similar roles. For example, the following are just a few of the new labels attached to the teacher who supervises interns in the school setting: cooperating supervisor, clinical associate, intern supervisor, professional consultant, coordinating teacher, and associate in teacher education.

In contrast to the role confusion caused by the use of different labels to designate the same position is the confusion resulting from the use of the same labels to refer to supervisors performing different roles. (For instance, the title "college supervisor" and "supervising teacher" are used to identify supervisors of both interns and student teachers in some new programs.) The internship, defined in this yearbook as a paid experience coming after student teaching, implies that the role of supervisor of student teachers is different from the role of supervisor of interns. It would seem reasonable, therefore, that a supervisor working with prospective teacher in each phase of the teacher education process should have a title which describes more accurately the functions he performs.

In addition to the lack of clarity regarding titles which specify supervisory roles, the word *internship* itself is being used to refer to many different phenomena. For example, the Central Michigan University internship program includes three levels of direct experiences in internship assignments: teacher assistant (junior year), teacher extern (senior year), and teacher intern (fifth year).[17] In sharp contrast to this definition of internships are the many Masters of Arts in Teaching programs, such as those sponsored by Ford Foundation grants, which do not require any preinternship direct experience. In effect, in many cases the internship is a substitute for student teaching rather than a follow-up of student teaching. The survey by Stone of forty-two institutions with such programs provides testimony to this statement.[18]

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[17] Bennie, William A. *Cooperation for Better Student Teaching.* Minneapolis: Burgess Co., 1966. Chapter VIII, "The Internship," p. 108.

A new specificity is needed to give the term *internship* and its attendant supervisory roles meaning. Current definitions of internships and roles operating in internship situations tend to be stated in organizational terms rather than in process or behavioral terms. Emphasis is on which semester in the teacher education program the experience takes place, what courses precede or follow the internship, who does the supervision and how much time is provided for it, and whether or not those involved get paid for it and by whom.

The approach to role definition suggested by role theory differs greatly from the organizational approach. It focuses on process, on action and human behavior within an organization. It suggests that the expectations which individuals in a given situation hold for themselves and for others be studied systematically. In the aforementioned Central Michigan University program, the attachment of a different name to each phase of the internship assignment suggests that there are different expectations for each of the roles of teacher assistant, teacher extern, and teacher intern, and different behavioral objectives for each phase of the program. Role definitions for these roles could be formulated or redefined by examining just what the expectations and perceptions of these roles are in reality as perceived by those presently involved in them and those working in positions related to them.

Distinction between the meaning of student teaching and the meaning of internships could also be sharpened by defining these in role theory terms. For that matter, it would seem worthwhile to place each role which interacts in internship processes in a focal position and examine it accordingly. System models could be used in studies designed for this purpose.

The system model in Figure II indicates the relational specification of the positions with which a particular study could be concerned. Figure III adds the position of principal of the cooperating school and the intern's department head. Of course, other participants, with their attendant perceptions and expectations, would also be operating in the interaction system: the pupils in the intern's classes, the college director of internships, the school district curriculum supervisor, and others. The model in Figure III, however, limits the analysis to the five roles identified.

Notice that there are twenty-five role sectors involved in the interaction system in Figure III which could be analyzed. A role sector is a set of expectations applied to the relationships of a focal position to a single counter-

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[18] Stone, James C. "Twenty-Nine Million for What?" *CTA Journal* 60: 25-28; October 1964.

Figure II

A SYSTEM MODEL INDICATING THE RELATIONAL SPECIFICATION OF THE POSITIONS OF COOPERATING INTERN SUPERVISOR, CLINICAL PROFESSOR AND INTERN.

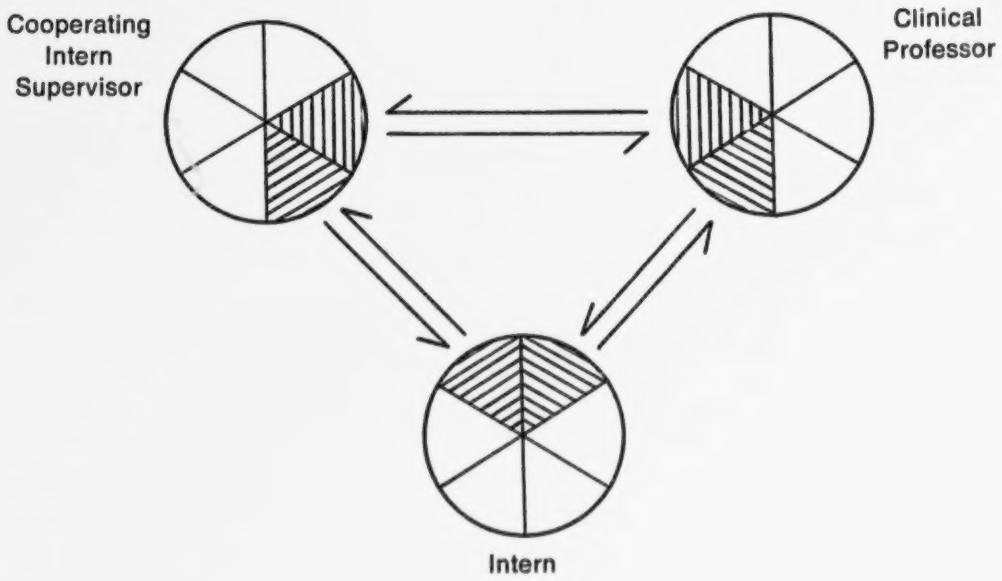

Cooperating Intern Supervisor
Clinical Professor
Intern

Figure III

A SYSTEM MODEL INDICATING THE RELATIONAL SPECIFICATION OF THE POSITIONS OF INTERN, COOPERATING INTERN SUPERVISOR, CLINICAL PROFESSOR, SCHOOL PRINCIPAL, AND DEPARTMENT HEAD.

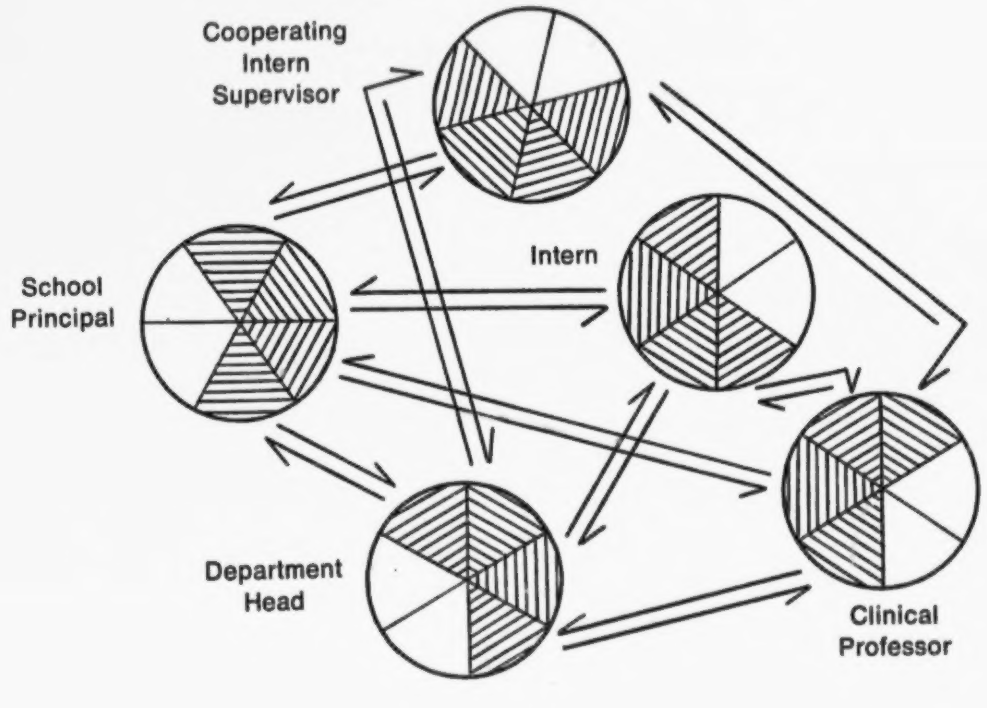
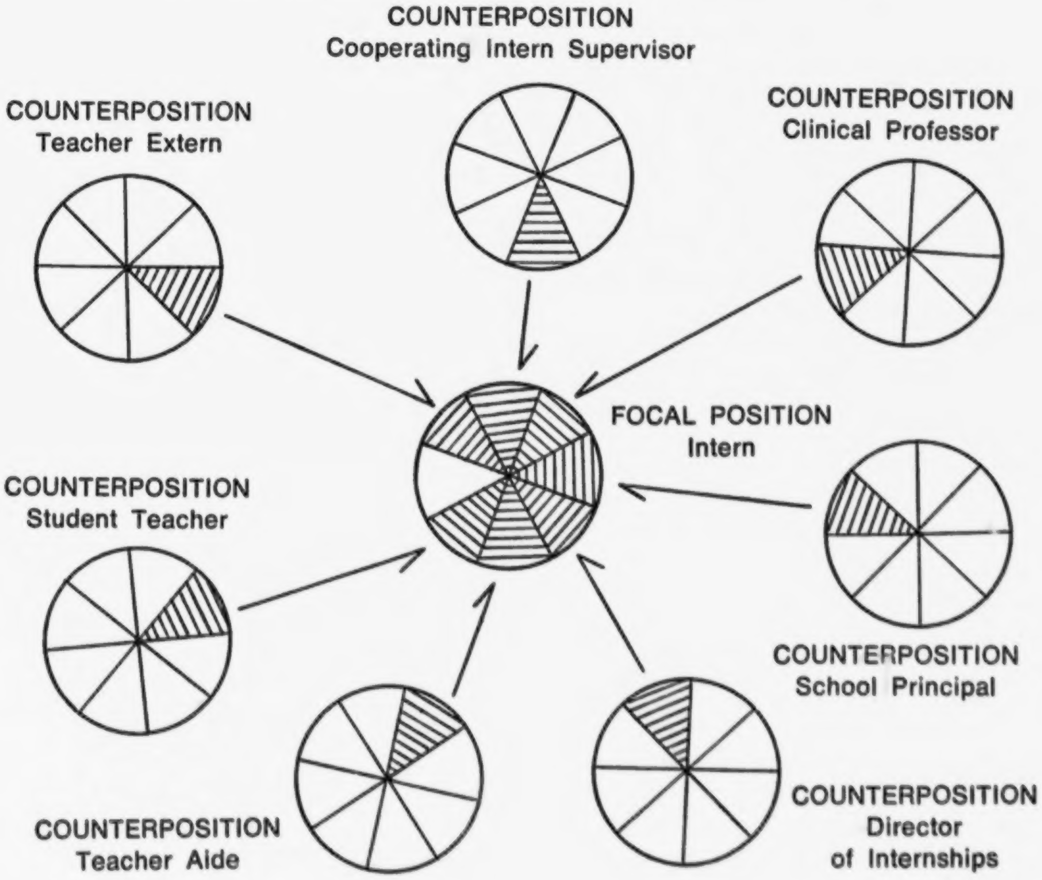

Cooperating Intern Supervisor
Intern
School Principal
Department Head
Clinical Professor

Figure IV

A POSITION-CENTRIC MODEL WITH INTERN IN FOCAL POSITION.[a]


COUNTERPOSITION
Cooperating Intern Supervisor
COUNTERPOSITION
Teacher Extern
COUNTERPOSITION
Clinical Professor
FOCAL POSITION
Intern
COUNTERPOSITION
Student Teacher
COUNTERPOSITION
School Principal
COUNTERPOSITION
Director
of Internships
COUNTERPOSITION
Teacher Aide

[a] One-way arrows indicate that this study would be concerned with only three expectations applied by occupants of counterpositions to the position of intern.

position.[19] Each of the people in the first positions identified has expectations *for the role of the other four position occupants as well as for his own position.*

Specification of the position of intern as the focal point of another study design is illustrated in the position-centric model presented in Figure IV. Here, the one-way lines indicate that the study will deal with expectations for only the position of intern, although that position will be examined within the context of its relationship to its counterpositions within the system devised for the study. Of course, any of the other positions in the internship interaction system could be placed in the focal position and studied in the same way.

Studies using the conceptual tools suggested here could be carried on in a single institution for the purpose of understanding the dynamics of the internship process in the local situation, or studies could be carried on cooperatively among a number of teacher-preparing institutions. For instance, it would be very interesting to compare the definitions of internship, in terms of role expectations of interns, student teachers, clinical professors, cooperating intern supervisors, school administrators, and other position occupants involved in each of the programs described in this yearbook.

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[19] Gross, Mason, and McEachern, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

Comprehensive analysis of the interaction systems operating in a variety of institutional settings could help to define the internship more precisely and would help to identify those factors which are most significant in bringing about role consensus and/or role conflict. With this kind of evidence, discovered from programs already in operation, guidelines for the future development of internships could be drawn. It is absolutely essential that we learn as much as we can about the internship programs which now exist. Without this knowledge, we have no foundation on which to build.

ROLE CLARITY AND CONSENSUS

Role theory suggests some other specific action steps which all involved in internships can undertake immediately without waiting for the results of long-term research.

The primary implication of role analysis is that increased clarity and consensus on roles in internship situations can be achieved only if we are willing to proceed from an analytical point of view. Everyone concerned with internship experiences within a specific context must be willing to become involved in continuous systematic study of role relationships. In order to identify and analyze the expectations held for each position, it will be necessary to provide planned opportunities for discussion among and within the groups of position occupants.

Merely increasing the extent of communication, however, probably cannot be expected to produce significant changes in the direction of increased consensus. What is discussed and how it affects behavior are the key factors in achieving understanding of role relationships. The communication that takes place must produce a free and open examination of specific aspects of each role—areas of disagreement as well as agreement. It is necessary that the occupants of each position first clearly state the expectations they hold for themselves. Then each individual and group definition of a role can be explained to the others and specific differences can be identified. Only as areas of disagreement and agreement are thus clearly specified can a dialogue among those involved be expected to contribute to the development of increased clarity and consensus.

It is suggested, further, that discussions be more extensive than single meetings with prospective interns during the week preceding the beginning of the internship assignment. As prospective teachers prepare for their internship through professional education courses, for example, college personnel can share with them the expectations held for them as interns and the significance of these expectations to the overall purpose of the internship experience.

College personnel should also meet with cooperating school personnel on a continuing basis in order to discuss the expectations which members of both groups hold for interns as well as for themselves (for example, expectations related to placement, planning, evaluation, conferring, and other areas of potential role conflict). The one-shot orientation "tea" will not suffice. Only through personal associations developed over a long period of time can individuals move from the "shadowboxing" stage to the kind of relationship which allows the hard questions to be raised.

It is not suggested here that a single definition of roles either can or ought to be applied to all internship situations, since roles must ultimately emerge and be defined in the situations in which they will function. It is suggested, however, that groups of college personnel and school personnel who will be interacting with each other in specific internship situations should recognize the need to develop, prior to and during internship experiences, clarity regarding the definitions of their roles. Only as all individuals involved view consensus, not as a condition to be assumed, but as a condition to be developed and continuously reviewed, can they establish a basis for effective relationships in internship situations.

USE OF ROLE THEORY

The most effective use of role theory is to assist in exploring the interaction system under examination. Theory can provide economical ways of ordering information; it can help put facts into significant relationships. Because of its emphasis on the interrelatedness of phenomena, theory alerts us to the consequences of action and helps us to become more sensitive to the factors in a situation which might call for changed behavior or changed conditions. Theory can assist in describing more precisely what is known and suggest hypotheses for further investigation of the unknown. When viewed in this manner, theory can help us to identify, anticipate, and solve role relationship problems. It can provide new ways of thinking about internships.

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CHAPTER VIII

The Professional Components for Elementary School Intern Teachers

Students enter teacher education today through various avenues. An examination of programs in several colleges and universities which offer internship programs in elementary education reveals a wide variety in terms of the content of the professional components. Factors such as the commitment of the institution to teacher education, the size and location of the institution, admission requirements, the level for which the program is designed, and the institution's desire and capacity to revise programs in light of existing conditions and concerns about elementary education contribute to the element of variety evident in existing internship programs.

In view of the four existing types of internship programs that were considered in this study, namely, the four-year undergraduate program, the five-year program, the fifth-year graduate program, and the two-year graduate program, and the extent to which the above factors influence their curriculum offerings, there is no attempt to propose a course of study for all students engaged in internship programs. Yet, there is need to consider certain aspects of teacher education which may serve as *common denominators,* no matter what the type of program.

Two aspects of teacher preparation are selected for focus as they relate to programs in elementary education:

1. Different ways of organizing the content of the professional components.
2. Current trends in relation to the content of the professional components.

To treat the content of professional components, there is need to focus on academic and education courses. For teaching in the elementary grades, knowledge drawn from many academic fields can contribute directly and indirectly to competent instruction. Such knowledge furnishes background information for approaching each of the subject areas in the curriculum. Further, "the teacher as an individual and citizen needs understanding of the academic fields."[1] Education courses, in turn, are essential to helping the prospective teacher acquire the skills and understandings needed to guide learning.

Content of the professional components refers also to academic and education courses which offer direct experience. For example, students enrolled in a sociology course, Housing and Society, use the community as a laboratory for a study of certain concepts treated in the course. An education course, Classroom Practices Seminar, includes three hours per week of laboratory experience in elementary school situations. Direct experience can enhance meaning of the concepts and skills that are significant to the content of an academic or education course. As certain aspects of the professional components are considered in this chapter, further attention is given to the place of direct experience in academic and education courses.

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[1] Cottrell, Donald P., editor. *Teacher Education for a Free People.* Oneonta, N.Y.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, a department of the National Education Association, 1956. p. 84.

WAYS OF ORGANIZING CONTENT

There are a number of facets to consider in relation to organization of the content of the professional components: (a) separate discipline and interdisciplinary approaches, (b) courses with and without direct experiences, (c) academic courses designed for the specialist and those designed for the prospective teacher, (d) emphasis on academic fields, and (e) emphasis on education courses.

Disciplinary Approaches

Examples of separate and interdisciplinary approaches are found in the titles and descriptions of courses offered in internship programs:

Separate Discipline Approach

Academic Courses	*Education Courses*
English Literature	Teaching Reading in the Elementary School
English Composition	Children's Literature
General Mathematics	Mathematics in Elementary Education
General Speech	Science in Elementary Education
Art Appreciation	Social Studies in Elementary Education
Appreciation of Music	Historical Foundations of Education
Geology	
Astronomy	
Sociology	

Interdisciplinary Approach

Academic Courses

The Humanistic Tradition: Interdisciplinary studies in the humanities; the analysis, comparison, and evaluation of philosophical points of view, religious faiths, and selected works from literature, the visual arts, and music, which, in varying civilizations of the world, reflect the creative and judicious nature of mankind.[2]

Education Courses

Education Foundations in the United States: Analysis of the purposes, processes, structure, and financing of education. Relationship to historical content and social conditions. Emphasis on philosophical and psychological theories. Provision for observation in schools and community agencies.[3]

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[2] Oberlin College. *Catalog 1966-67.* Oberlin, Ohio: the College, 1966. p. 113.

[3] Goucher College. *Catalog 1966-67.* Towson, Md.: the College, 1966. p. 154

The interdisciplinary approach affords opportunity for the students to acquire a unified picture of related concepts as they emerge in the fields represented in the academic and education courses. This approach may also aid the student (the prospective teacher) in understanding the significance of integrating certain concepts and skills inherent in some subjects of the elementary curriculum. Consider how he might utilize knowledge from several social sciences while organizing his social studies program were he enrolled in an interdisciplinary course in the social sciences which treated certain ideas from the point of view of the political scientist, historian, economist, sociologist, and anthropologist. Were he exposed to the relationship between mathematics and science in a methods course which treated these subjects in combination, he might devise ways of reinforcing computational skills in his science program. He might use science materials, in turn, to clarify mathematics concepts pertaining to percentage, ratio, and elements of geometry.

Related Direct Experience

In some instances, academic courses lend themselves to direct experience, whether it be field trips or laboratory activities. Some courses in political science afford field work in government agencies. A course in urban geography involves a study of numerous cities of the world and includes a local field survey. Several biological science courses include field trips. Direct experience not only serves to enhance meaning of concepts treated in these courses; it may also heighten the student's understanding of why experience of a similar nature is important to children.

In several cases, the education courses offered by institutions represented in this study provide direct experience. Many courses in human development require and provide for field experience. Both observation and participation experiences are noted in courses that offer depth analysis of a community, using school and nonschool agencies as a means of achieving understanding of a particular locality. Courses focusing on the content, methods, and materials of instruction are usually accompanied by observation visits. Some of the foundations courses (e.g., historical, philosophical, and sociological foundations) provide for direct experience. For example, one institution offers the following:

> *The American Public School:* A study of the historical-social foundations of American education as related to the development of modern practices in both the elementary and secondary schools. Extensive observation at all levels of public education will be required. Some participation in a classroom will be provided.[4]

Certainly, firsthand contacts can provide students with a meaningful backdrop for the reading, discussion, lectures, and other activities used to develop concepts and skills pertinent to an education course and to certain academic courses.

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[4] University of Redlands. *Catalog 1966-67.* Redlands, Calif.: the University, 1966. p. 106.

The intention is not to propose that all academic courses should provide direct experience. Field trips or laboratory experiences may not lend themselves to some courses in the humanities (e.g., Russian Philosophy), the social sciences (e.g., Religion and Literature of the Old Testament), or mathematics (e.g., Introduction to Mathematical Thought). Yet, it would seem important for any institution which prepares teachers to consider wherein the academic and education courses could and should afford direct experience.

Professionally Relevant Academic Courses

Certainly the student preparing to teach in the elementary school needs background knowledge in the humanities and social and natural sciences. One would assume the student would use this knowledge to good advantage in the actual teaching situation.

With the increasing complexity of the content to be developed while teaching each subject in the elementary curriculum, and with a trend toward departmentalization and team teaching, more students are encouraged or required to undertake a specialization in an academic subject. Assuming a student has a strong aptitude in at least one academic field, he will pursue the course designed for the student majoring in that field.

It is important, however, to consider academic courses which may or may not have a direct relationship to the type of subject matter background required to teach *each* of the curriculum areas. Recognizing that certain courses in mathematics are more appropriate than others in terms of the needs of the prospective teacher, some institutions advise their students to enroll, for example, in Language and Concepts of Mathematics rather than Analytical Geometry and Calculus. In other instances, a mathematics department offers Mathematics for Elementary Teachers, which is designed to provide mathematical background for an elementary teacher. Certainly the emphasis on logical structure and fundamental concepts rather than on formal techniques is appropriate to the tasks of teaching mathematics in the elementary grades. A mathematics course which affords introduction to statistics is another suitable type.

In regard to science courses, quite likely Introductory Physical Science is more appropriate for the prospective elementary teacher than Quantitative Concepts of Physical Science.

With the exception of the academic fields in which the student possesses above-average ability, it would seem wise to *steer* him toward those courses which have some relationship to the type of content essential to subject matter background for teaching in the elementary grades.

Academic and Education Courses

With the increased amount of content in the various subjects taught in the elementary grades (e.g., broadened scope of mathematics and science, increased emphasis in geography, economics, and elements of history), there has been considerable revision of certification requirements in many states. Several states now stipulate minimum requirements for courses in the humanities and social and natural sciences.

A survey of the various types of internship programs further attests to emphasis on academic background:

Four-Year Undergraduate Programs

Between two-thirds and three-fourths of the total credits required for the bachelor's degree are earned in liberal arts courses.

Five-Year Programs

Requirements vary. Two-thirds of the total program are in academic areas; an academic minor is required; or an area of specialization, such as English or social sciences, is specified.

Fifth-Year Graduate Programs

Admission to many programs is based, in part, on undergraduate background in the liberal arts. Many institutions require balance in undergraduate background among the three faculties: humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences.

Two-Year Graduate Programs

Students admitted to these programs are required to have an undergraduate background in the liberal arts. During the two years of professional preparation, candidates are required to specialize in an academic field and/or take academic courses needed in a subject other than the undergraduate major.

Emphasis on education courses is more likely to be found in the fifth-year and two-year graduate programs. Generally speaking, these programs are designed for students whose undergraduate major was in a field other than education and who possess a liberal arts background. In the fifth-year graduate programs, the entire curriculum may be comprised of education courses. In the two-year graduate programs, the emphasis is on education courses, even though several academic courses may be required.

For all types of internship programs, it would appear that the content of the professional component is drawn predominately from the academic fields. There is less likely to be an emphasis on education courses in programs in which professional preparation has been postponed to postbaccalaureate years.

In view of the significance of each of the above facets, perhaps an existing or future internship program can be considered with particular attention to the best possible ways of organizing the content of the professional components.

CURRENT TRENDS IN CONTENT

Certain developments warrant consideration as they relate to current trends: (a) merging courses in education, (b) providing for direct experience,

(c) emphasizing responsible work with children early in the sequence, (d) integrating education courses in the internship, (e) providing alternate routes to teacher preparation, (f) preparing teachers for urban areas, and (g) providing introduction to research techniques.

Merged Courses

Several institutions have merged or are in the process of merging certain courses in education. For example:

> *Language Arts and Children's Literature in the Elementary School:* A study of the best books for children. Folk, modern realistic, and fanciful literature, both prose and verse, and the work of modern illustrators of children's books receive attention. Problems arising in a well-rounded reading program; development of basic reading abilities and skills; providing for individual differences; appraisal of practices and trends; attention to oral and written expression, including spelling and handwriting.[5]

Here is another example:

> *Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies in the Elementary School:* Current trends in arithmetic instruction and evaluation of present curricula in elementary science; analysis of learning difficulties at different grades; available materials and books; evaluation of methods of teaching; individual problems. Appraisal of social studies programs; controversial issues and present trends; criteria for planning and improving social studies curricula; individual problems.[6]

There are supportive reasons for the merger if the instructor is qualified to handle the material and affords students the opportunity to recognize wherein they can help children grasp the interrelationships among the subject areas. In respect to methods courses per se, some merging can serve to eliminate needless repetition—a criticism frequently directed at separate courses in the teaching of each area of the elementary curriculum.

Direct Experience

In several cases institutions are providing direct experience as an integral part of the methods courses and courses in child development and educational psychology. For example:

> *Art and Music for Children:* Creative growth through use of various media for artistic and musical expressions of children. Trends and materials in the teaching of art and music in the elementary school. Relationship of art and music to interests and capacities of various age levels and to other learning activities. Observations in teaching of art and music.[7]

As noted previously, direct experience enhances meaning and can promote more purposeful learning of the course content. Such values are increasingly recognized in the organization of courses in the historical, philosophical, and sociological foundations of education.

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[5] Oberlin College, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

[6] Oberlin College, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

[7] Goucher College, *loc. cit.*

Early Work with Children

In each of the four types of internship programs represented in this study, several institutions afford student teaching at the following points:

Four-Year Undergraduate Programs

Student teaching during the early half of the junior year.

Five-Year Programs

Student teaching usually scheduled at the beginning of the senior year.

Fifth-Year Graduate Programs

A summer of student teaching preceding the academic year, or student teaching in the early fall.

Two-Year Graduate Programs

A summer of student teaching preceding the academic year or during the second semester of the first year of enrollment in the program.

As one notes, the word *early* is relative to the particular type of internship program. While preparation for student teaching does bespeak need for certain types of methods courses either prior to or during this experience, the early exposure to responsible work with children can further stimulate the student's interest in and purpose for subsequent work in education courses prior to the internship. In view of the tasks to be faced in an independent manner during the internship, it is crucial that the student acquire understanding of children, knowledge of the learning process, and the use of methods and materials of instruction in a meaningful setting, not in a vacuum. Direct experience with children at an early period in the professional sequence can afford greater flexibility for extension of student teaching (if advisable) and better opportunity to test inclinations about grade level, type of school, and other factors before arrangements must be made for internship placement.

Courses During Internship

If the internship experience is a full-day assignment, a weekly seminar to focus on problems encountered in the internship or to focus on teaching methods seems significant and essential. In one of the fifth-year graduate programs there is a weekly seminar in which an attempt is made to reconcile practice and theory.

The sessions are a combination of group therapy, staff encouragement and instruction, and lectures by staff members and by specialists invited to share their knowledge about particular fields. The topics of major concern are interrelated: children, discipline, instructional programs, relationships with colleagues and parents, and the meaning of teaching.

Children

What can be done about the child who is very intelligent but doesn't do well in school? The child who isn't equal to the demands of his parents? The child who appropriates others' possessions? The child who is an attention-getter, a tease, a "dirty devil"?

Almost every class has its share of children whom a teacher, as one observer put it, "takes home." These are the ones who nag at the teacher's heartstrings or his temper and patience, who disturb his nights as well as his daytimes. The students discover that many of these "problem children" can be reached by the teacher through patience, understanding, and background knowledge about the child and home. They also must learn that, much as they might wish to, they cannot cope with all classroom cases.

Discipline

Why don't I have as well-disciplined a class as I had when I was a student teacher? When you told us to be firm at the beginning and relax later, why didn't you say how firm? How can I stop yelling at my class? Why won't they listen to me? Will I ever be able to control them? How can I determine who was to blame? Should the whole class be blamed for the transgressions of two or three? Why can't I solve the discipline problem and devote my time to teaching?

The students learn that children are quick to sense whether or not a teacher means business, just as a horse knows whether or not a rider is in command; that his actions are as important as his words; that children perceive whether or not a teacher has honest regard, respect, and concern for them; that the pupils can accept the teacher's desire to punish, or even the punishment, if they know that, basically, the teacher likes them.

Instructional Program

What can be done to enrich the usual curriculum offerings for the bright children in a class? Should I try an individualized reading program? How can I teach about magnetism? Is there a way to teach spelling other than by word lists? How can I keep ahead of my class? Wouldn't it take less teaching time if children memorized arithmetic as I did?

The students find that enrichment can often be provided through a special group project or individual assignment. For instance, a few able sixth-graders studied the stock market. And bright pupils in a fourth-grade class rewrote *Dick Whittington and His Cat* from the viewpoint of the cat.

Relationships with Colleagues and Parents

Why do teachers gripe about their jobs? Is it professional to discuss children with other teachers? Why are faculty meetings undemocratic? Why are teachers afraid to tell administrators what they think?

Griping, the students learn, is probably a safety valve, and it certainly is not peculiar to teachers. Judging the mood of the situation and the kind of gripe, one can refuse to participate, change the subject, point out any errors, propose that it be discussed at a faculty meeting. Maintaining outside interests, they learn, should help reduce the gripes.

How can I explain to Steve's parents that he isn't as intelligent as they think he is? How can I tell Nancy's parents that she won't be promoted? What can I do about a mother who has ignored two invitations to confer with me? What can I do for a child who has no warm clothing? What can be done about a mother who beats her child?

Most parents, the students decide, are reasonable people, interested in their children's welfare and anxious (sometimes too anxious) to help them. Some parents are over-ambitious for their children. Some spoil them. Some parents seem not to care.

Teaching

Why was I so critical of some of the teachers I observed when we first visited the schools? Do I really have what it takes? How long will it be before I am proficient? When will I feel that I'm not spending all of my waking hours in teaching? Can I really become a good teacher? Do I really want to teach?

Lest these problems seem too frustrating, be assured that there are also delightful, imaginative, ingenuous examples of creative teaching. Often this is the point at which the student begins to correlate one subject with another —the poetry that has its origin in a science lesson, the artistic versions of a story the class wrote, the letters that follow a field trip.

Beginning with Joan Anglund's *A Friend Is Someone Who Likes You* and then reading some of her other stories, one group of pupils wrote its interpretation of the author's philosophy of life. An intern made an excellent tape of an arithmetic lesson, in order to use her time more effectively with two groups of pupils. (Her first-graders never did realize that it was she who was their "other teacher.")[8]

While methods courses paralleling the internship may be most meaningful to the student at that stage in his professional preparation, there is question as to how much he should undertake while teaching the full day. Certainly, time is needed to prepare lessons, confer with parents and the intern supervisor, and attend to various responsibilities within the total framework of the school. For the student who is engaged in a half-day internship schedule, enrollment in more than one course might be feasible.

Alternate Routes

Candidates for admission to fifth-year and two-year graduate programs are likely to possess diverse backgrounds in terms of education courses. Some institutions equipped to offer programs to students who have or have not completed the education sequence prior to admission, or who have partially completed requirements in education, are offering alternatives in their programs. Some examples follow:

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[8] Tatum, Beulah Benton. "How Goucher Trains Teachers." *Goucher Alumnae Quarterly*, Winter 1964. p. 2.

> Instead of repeating a course in reading methods, a student might enroll in a course in remedial reading.
>
> For the student with a background in child development, there is opportunity to take a course focusing on the emotionally handicapped.
>
> A course about how to teach the slow learner is offered to those who have had a course in educational psychology.
>
> If a student has not had any courses in education but possesses a fine record in an undergraduate major in psychology, he may carry out an independent study related to some aspect of child development or educational psychology in lieu of a course in one of these subjects.
>
> In some cases, provision is made to take academic courses in lieu of education courses completed prior to entering the program.

In some programs that are open to provisionally certified teachers as well as to students with no background in teacher education, arrangements for the internship include the following:

> A provisionally certified teacher is paired with a student who is in initial stages of teacher preparation. The former is an intern during the fall semester and is replaced by his counterpart for the spring semester of the school year.
>
> During the fall semester, the newcomers to the education field pursue a series of courses in preparation for the internship; the provisionally certified teachers engage in a series of education courses during the spring semester.

Attempts to meet some of the differences in students' background are to be commended. Yet, for those who are lacking adequate background in certain academic fields, it is important that they be advised to enroll in courses designed for the prospective teacher, even if this means part-time enrollment at another institution.

Teaching the Disadvantaged

With increasing concern for the negative, apathetic attitudes toward education possessed by children living in slum areas, where motivation toward success in school is understandably poor, efforts are being made to provide courses or total programs of preparation for teaching in urban communities. One example among several which warrant attention is the Urban Teacher Preparation Program at Syracuse University. As in the case of other internship programs, this is a cooperative endeavor between the institution and the local public school system. The following paragraphs are illustrative of some features of the program:

> Supplementary to and simultaneously with this laboratory experience [the internship], interns take academic courses which deal with concepts,

> attitudes, and philosophical beliefs of curriculum and teaching methods. The core areas of psychological and cultural foundations and tests and measurements, as well as further study in the content of their fields and level of teaching, are required.
>
> In a weekly seminar conducted by the staff, many of these areas are also covered and made *specifically* relevant to the interns' work with the disadvantaged, stressing in particular instructional techniques and *appropriate* curriculum. Thus, there is a deliberate interweaving of theory and practice.
>
> Another special course developed by the program, devoted to the problems of the urban poor, draws upon different visiting lecturers each week who are experts in various facets of the urban scene. To supplement further their background in the urban setting, several male interns have a "living in" experience in the spring semester during which they reside with one of the staff members in an apartment in the blighted area of the inner city. Visits, also, to parole officers, welfare agencies, family courts, etc., widen the intern's experiences with the forces which his pupils confront.
>
> The stress is on the social sciences so that interns will be able to view the school in a realistic light. The intercultural experiences help bridge the gap between the interns' usually predominately middle-class culture and the culture of their pupils.[9]

Another example, Project Mission, is a joint endeavor among three colleges in Maryland—Coppin, Morgan, and Towson State Colleges—and the Baltimore City Public Schools. The courses emphasize the development of the understandings of the culturally deprived through a strong program of field and laboratory experiences.

Content of the professional components for those preparing to teach in the inner-city or culturally disadvantaged areas requires special consideration. This applies to academic as well as education courses. Sociology departments might provide much-needed knowledge and understanding of a community and conditions which, in turn, imply certain directions for educating children and youth in poverty areas. Science departments might consider types of content that warrant particular focus for prospective teachers of the disadvantaged. Just as programs for the gifted in science have been devised by teams of scientists and educationists, there is merit in designing a science curriculum for the disadvantaged, with attention to the type of college science courses best suited to providing background knowledge for implementing such a program.

Education courses should give emphasis to content that is realistic for the disadvantaged child. Methods courses need to stress the significance of concrete materials, activities that build verbal facility, and meaningful situations for computational skills. Courses in child development and educational psychology need to focus on factors pertinent to the environment of these children, their effect on the child's total growth pattern, and implications for the learning-teaching process. Here, too, direct experience is exceedingly important.

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[9] Syracuse University. "The Urban Teacher Preparation Program." Syracuse, N.Y.: the University, n.d. p. 5. (Mimeographed)

With the responsibilities the prospective teacher must encounter in an internship, the need to prepare more directly and realistically for an urban situation is expedient.

Research Techniques

Consideration of research techniques and application of research findings to problems in education are increasingly evident in the offerings or requirements of internship programs. While research activity is more prevalent in the graduate than in the undergraduate programs, it would appear that all prospective teachers should understand the nature of educational research in order to interpret and critically evaluate the journals and textbooks they pursue during and following formal preparations for teaching.

Methods and techniques of research may further help the students build skill in future endeavors wherein, as individuals or members of a team, they undertake to formulate a significant problem, construct an instrument for investigation, and interpret the findings. Certainly, with the amount of maturity and independence required of an intern, one may expect that the students involved in internships will be exposed directly to several issues, some of which require knowledge of research techniques in order to weigh the possible implications and values.

CONCLUSION

The current trends in relation to the professional components, as reflected by existing programs represented in this study, have significant implications. However, the trends should be considered in light of the individual situation and the factors that influence an existing program. If there is concern for improvement or interest in organizing an internship program in elementary education, ideas considered in the latter part of this chapter will contribute to establishing and strengthening the preparation of teachers whose approach to teaching is by way of, and includes, an internship experience.

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CHAPTER IX

The Content of Internships: Student Experiences and Program Design in Secondary Programs

The growth of teaching internship programs in recent years has attracted considerable professional interest and has raised the question of what is and what should be the content of internships. The question of *what is* the content of teaching internships can be answered only by looking at the experiences interns have, because the content of any educational program is synonymous with the experiences of students in that program. The question of *what should be* the content of internships also can be answered by examining student experiences, but in addition considering the strengths and weaknesses or quality of these experiences.

This chapter, therefore, will seek first to describe some experiences of intern teachers in actual internships. It will then analyze these experiences to determine implications for the design of internship programs. Of the two types of internship programs which have become popular in the past decade—the terminal program for students within a planned sequence of professional experience and the fifth-year program for students with little or no professional preparation—the chapter will concentrate almost exclusively on the latter, for several reasons. First, many colleges are interested in efforts to streamline teacher education, that is, to cut the length of time of the education program. The fifth-year internship seems to many to be a promising possibility. Second, fifth-year programs are more dramatic than terminal programs because they telescope a great deal of cognitive and affective learning into a short period of time as contrasted with terminal programs where internships are a transition between college and career.

Material for this chapter will be drawn from experiences with two fifth-year internship programs for college graduates without prior work in education who are preparing to teach in secondary schools. Student reaction reports, diaries, and incidents in college classes and in schools will be used to support generalizations about student experiences in internships.

A very brief description of the two programs to be analyzed may provide some needed perspectives. Both programs were distinguished by a full year of part-time, salaried intern teaching in public secondary schools, and each began with professional courses during the summer preceding the internship.

Program A provided no professional laboratory experiences anywhere in the program other than the internship. Program B provided some 60-80

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hours of varied laboratory experiences, including some observation and a great deal of participation in summer schools and community agencies, as part of the course work during the summer prior to the internship.

The summer session in Program A provided a choice among courses in philosophy of education, history of education, adolescent psychology, educational psychology, problems of secondary education, and special methods. These courses enrolled students other than interns, including psychology majors and those preparing to teach through other programs. Course choice was based upon need, time when courses were offered, and whether students wished to attend one or two summer sessions. Professional courses not completed during the summer were completed during the regular academic year together with a seminar for intern and student teachers.

Program B offered just one eight-credit professional course during the summer—Teaching in Urban Schools. This course integrated work in social and psychological foundations and educational methodology with field experiences in schools and community agencies. Other professional work was completed in the regular academic year concurrently with the internship. An internship seminar and a workshop in secondary education integrated philosophical, social, and psychological foundations with educational methods and problems encountered on the job. A special methods course was offered in the public school by selected resource teachers and was related as closely as possible to the intern's teaching needs.

Program A required thirty-two credits for the master's degree. Requirements in academic course work were flexible because state licensing requirements then were not rigid. Program B required forty-two credits for the master's degree. Fifteen of these forty-two credits had to be in graduate academic courses.

Completion of Program A led to a master's degree and provisional teacher certification. Completion of the internship portion of Program B led to provisional teacher certification, and completion of the entire program resulted in permanent certification.

The qualifications of candidates for both programs were very similar. They were all graduates of reputable, accredited four-year colleges; many had been out of college for several years and had worked in other fields; all had little or no preparation in professional education; undergraduate grade averages ranged from B to C+; and most were highly motivated to become secondary school teachers.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERN TEACHERS

Certain developmental stages were identified as interns progressed from novice to experienced teachers. The first stage, one of anxiety and anticipation, took place in the summer preceding the internship as students looked forward to the responsibilities they would have to face in the fall. This reaction is understandable in light of the interns' inexperience and their apprehensions over what to expect in the schools. They therefore were most concerned that the summer preinternship period equip them to cope with the urgent problems they expected to find in their first few days and weeks in the classroom.

The second stage, through which interns seemed to pass during the first few weeks of actual intern teaching, was one of shock, or at least controlled panic, when they realized their inadequacies and the need for learning quickly how to handle teaching problems. This was evident in the frantic calls by some interns to sympathetic college and school people for advice and guidance. Some approached the college coordinator to find out how to drop out completely. Understanding and reassuring counseling tended to calm them till they got on their own feet in a matter of a few weeks.

The third stage was a period of floundering as interns tried various approaches in handling their classes. This period often involved urgent consultations with sympathetic colleagues and the testing of ideas derived from many sources. It was a period of constant emotional ups and downs, for some of their efforts met with alternate success and failure. Some grew more elated and confident as they realized they were "reaching the kids." Others became depressed when they could not readily find the road to success.

The fourth stage, encountered by interns who had met with a modicum of success previously, was one of stabilization in teaching style and growing independence. They made part of their teaching repertoire those approaches they had found successful and rejected those that had not worked. They also needed and wanted less direction and guidance from supervisors and openly differed with supervisors when their views did not coincide.

Of course, some students did not pass through each stage successfully and fell by the wayside. The student who failed usually had more obvious emotional problems than the successful student. Academic ability rarely played much of a part in failure.

In the following pages, each of these stages will be examined in greater detail to illustrate how interns develop into experienced teachers and to determine how the college program may be designed to assist interns in passing successfully through each stage.

STAGE I: ANXIETY AND ANTICIPATION

This period of the intern teacher's development occurs in the summer months prior to the start of actual intern teaching in the fall. The prospective teacher, at this point, is typically in a somewhat disturbed or unsettled mood for several reasons. First, his decision to teach frequently is made later in life, when he has more responsibilities and problems than the average undergraduate. He may have left a job, a business, or a household and may have to support himself and several dependents. Recent college graduates may have fewer responsibilities, but switching career goals also tends to arouse anxiety. The pre-med student who could not get into medical school, the science or mathematics major who could not find fulfillment in his field of specialization, or the humanities or social science major who felt that the only way to make a living with his background was in becoming a teacher—all are drawn to teaching with some misgivings which make them intolerant of unproductive academic games.

This becomes obvious from the very first day when students are involved in cooperatively planning summer classes. One of the first problems they want to study is "discipline." They want to know how to establish classroom control and handle difficult children. Then they ask: "How can I make classes interesting?" "What teaching procedures can I use to capture the attention and interest of my pupils?" "What can I do to handle the wide variety of interests and personality types in my classes?" Third, they want to know how teachers decide what to teach. "How much freedom will I have in selecting subject matter?" "What criteria can I use in selection?" "Where can I learn what I need to know academically in teaching?" Finally, if they expect to teach in disadvantaged neighborhoods, they want to know how to bridge the gap between their middle-class background and the background of their children.

This single-mindedness of purpose, while excellent motivation, can be frustrating to both interns and their instructors, who know that the problems they raise often cannot be answered fully in a six-week summer session or even a full internship year.

Attitudes as well as facts must be learned during the preinternship period. One intern realized the value of certain attitudes for teaching in a reaction paper written during the summer:

> I used to think it was important to standardize education for all people. I thought that some higher authority should develop a syllabus for all teachers of the same grade and that teachers should teach that syllabus. From what I have seen in school this summer, I realize the idea is impossible. There are too many different children with too many different needs and abilities. I believe now that I must know and understand my students and select subject matter that will be of interest and value to them. If I have to junk the entire syllabus because it is not appropriate to my students' needs, I am ready to do so.

Another intern also illustrated in a reaction paper some attitudes he had acquired about teaching which he thought would have value later on:

> Where I went to college, student participation in classes was not required and, in fact, was even discouraged by some faculty members. We were lectured at and were expected to regurgitate the professors' ideas at the appropriate time. Students were often discouraged by professors with remarks like, "See me in my office during my office hour," or, "We'll cover that later in the semester." Of course, they never went to the professor's office and the question was forgotten by the time "later in the semester" came around. I realized this summer how accustomed I had become to not speaking in class and how interested you get and how much more you learn when you participate in discussions. When I become a teacher I am going to try to get my kids to talk in class and to respect each other's contributions.

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Implications for the College Program

In view of the above, how should the college program be designed to help students through this period? Student reactions in Programs A and B should provide some valuable leads.

Program A, to reiterate, did not provide laboratory experiences during the summer preinternship period. Program B provided 60-80 hours of observation and participation in schools and community agencies. With few exceptions, students found the lack of contact with actual situations one of the most serious deficiencies of Program A. As one student pithily stated:

> All we do in education courses is talk, talk, talk. The instructors should realize that we are talking of things many of us know very little about. We need field work in summer schools or other places where they have real live kids. If a picture is worth ten thousands words, field work should be worth a million.

Students in Program B who had direct experiences supported this point of view with comments such as the following:

> The most valuable part of this summer course was working in J.H.S. . . . . Watching Mr. . . . . teach and taking over a few of his classes was so impressive. I learned that it is easier to stand in front of a group of youngsters and try to teach than I had thought and I also learned good teachers have certain techniques or tricks that I can use when I begin teaching. One thing that amazed me was what poor readers these youngsters are. Because you must teach them how to read before you can do anything else, I am going to take courses in remedial reading. This experience taught me that every teacher should be a reading teacher, too.
>
> Student teaching at J.H.S. . . . . was valuable for me because I gained confidence in my ability to teach and convinced myself that this is the field for me. I was very upset whenever I thought of the sacrifices I made to get into this program and am greatly relieved because I think I made the right choice.

Interns considered some direct experiences more valuable than others. During the first summer of its operation, Program B assigned students for some sixty hours of field work in a community agency helping high school dropouts prepare for a job. Another 10-15 hours were spent observing in summer high schools. There was almost unanimous agreement among the future interns that they would have been better off spending more time in schools. They felt that the work of the agency was just a bit too remote from the problems they would face as teachers. They indicated many different times that field experiences not closely related to their internship duties and responsibilities were more or less wasted.

Program B attempted to prepare students for the first days and weeks of intern teaching by bringing together interns and resource teachers prior to the opening of school in September. Resource teachers were regular public school teachers selected by college and school representatives to supervise interns and teach special methods courses in the schools. This opportunity was considered to be very important by most interns. In the words of one of the more enthusiastic:

> Meeting with Mr. .... was good for my morale. He gave me the textbooks I would be using with my group, an outline of topics generally covered during the year, a list of rules and regulations I had to know about, and he cued me in on some of the people I would be working with and how to handle them. He also gave me his address and telephone number so I could call him whenever I had questions. I am especially looking forward to the meetings we arranged in late July and August to discuss curriculum and what I should be doing in the first days of school.

Students were required to arrange four meetings with resource teachers in the summer to get explicit ideas on preparation for the fall. These four meetings with resource teachers took the place of formal meetings on campus in September which had to be abandoned because of conflicting opening dates of schools in different districts. The meetings gave interns and resource teachers a chance to look each other over as well as to plan for the fall. They also provided some instruction in special methods as resource teachers helped interns with the specifics of lesson planning.

The type of experience described above was almost totally lacking in the preinternship portion of Program A, and its absence was noted by many interns who complained that they wanted an opportunity to talk with someone who knew the school situation they would meet in the fall. "How can I begin to prepare," one student asked, "when I haven't the foggiest idea of what to expect?"

A greater sensitivity to, and awareness of, different teaching methods and styles was developed during the preinternship period in Program B. This came about as interns observed various teachers and college instructors. It was due to the efforts of instructors to sensitize them as well as to their own increased readiness to analyze the teaching act.

One student asked a college instructor if he would permit her to make a report to the class on his teaching style. He agreed. She developed a simple instrument to help analyze teacher-student behavior and arrived at some discerning conclusions about how the instructor stimulated and inhibited student participation. She found that this instructor helped increase awareness of the teaching act by using a variety of procedures and techniques without warning students of what he was doing and then directing discussion, as the class session drew to a close, toward an analysis of what he had done and what students had felt and thought. He also encouraged a "class psychoanalysis" periodically to help students become more conscious of student-teacher and student-student reactions toward each other. Field work was followed immediately by seminars in the school and helped sensitize students to the "hows" of teaching.

In sum, college instructors as well as public school teachers are models of either good or bad teaching. The college must extend itself in providing good models and in encouraging honest and open exploration of what really happens as teachers and students interact to help interns better understand teaching methods.

Still another step colleges can take to help students through the preinternship period is to organize courses especially for interns. Program A, as indicated previously, offered interns a choice among a variety of courses open to psychology majors, experienced teachers, student teachers and others. The most common complaint of prospective interns was this:

> These courses are not geared to our needs. Either they do not deal with the special problems we face because they are designed as general courses, or, the varied interests of other students make it difficult for instructors to deal with our specific problems.

In Program B, on the other hand, only interns were permitted to register for the eight-credit summer course, Teaching in Urban Schools. Even with this format, failure to meet the varied needs of each student could be expected, but at least the college had tried. It seems axiomatic that a program designed for a special-interest group should be better for the group than a general one trying to reach a varied assortment of students.

STAGE II: URGENT NEEDS AND SHOCK

A period of shock often occurs in the first few weeks of the internship. The intern, at this point, has had several days of responsibility for and intimate contact with an assortment of adolescents. He has had to prepare and teach lessons, control and discipline youngsters, feel his way in the system, and take care of all kinds of paperwork and routines. Little wonder that some are overwhelmed and call for help.

Program A provided help through college supervisors, public school supervisors, and the college coordinator; Program B, through the college coordinator and the public school resource teacher. The resource teacher was a highly qualified teacher selected by college faculty and school administrators to supervise interns. He was paid by the college for supervising interns and teaching special methods in the school and was considered an adjunct member of the college faculty. He was relieved of some teaching responsibilities so that he could spend time each day visiting and conferring with the two or three interns assigned to him. In addition, he met his interns two hours each week to discuss special methods.

The public school supervisors in Program A, on the other hand, were cooperating teachers who visited interns when they had free periods or were department chairmen who supervised as they would regular teachers. The latter arrangement obviously did not provide as close supervision as the former, but, in practice, some resource teachers were less effective than some chairmen or cooperating teachers. In general, college representatives in Program A could not supervise closely simply because they could not always be present when needed. This was a major reason why Program B emphasized supervision by resource teacher rather than by college supervisor.

In any event, ready availability of a helpful guide and mentor was considered a basic necessity by most interns in the early weeks of the internship. Interns quite commonly indicated great appreciation for help given them. "If it were not for Mr. . . . ., I don't doubt that I'd still be in the pitcher's box today," was one statement representative of many. Some students in Program A complained:

> Mr. . . . . [a department chairman] is rarely around when we need him, and when we catch him, he has so many other responsibilities, he has little time left for us. Most of the time we are left to sink or swim.

Similar complaints were lodged in Program B when a resource teacher was assigned an inordinate number of other responsibilities and had little time left for interns.

The quality of the helping teacher and the nature of the relationships he established with interns was as important as the time he spent with them. One intern in Program A gave the following report about his cooperating teacher:

> Mr. . . . . is such an educational reactionary I can't wait for him to leave me alone. I'm better off experimenting on my own than listening to him. All I learn from observing his classes is what not to do.

Another, in Program B, somewhat more diplomatically commented:

> I'm glad Mr. . . . . has so many other responsibilities around the school.

The seminar for interns at the college served several useful purposes in the early stages of the internship. It was a sounding board where college coordinators could detect problems interns were having in the schools. It reassured students that there was someone to whom they could turn if they had troubles that could not be ironed out in the school. It provided a type of group therapy as interns in different situations shared their anxieties, concerns, and experiences. It helped interns solve some problems by discussing them among people with whom they felt comfortable. It provided concrete suggestions for improving teaching as various resources available at the college were brought in at appropriate times. It brought to the surface questions and problems which were to serve as a basis for further studies.

The value of the seminar was expressed by one intern as follows:

> I look forward to coming to the seminar each week because it helps preserve my sanity. It's good to know I'm not the only one having problems, because misery loves company. And ever so often I get ideas that really help me when I go back to school.

A final, serious concern of interns, at this point, was adequacy of preparation in the subject they were teaching. Of course, they were aware of this problem during the summer, but it came to a head in the fall when they faced their own classes. English majors felt the need for more knowledge about literature appropriate to adolescents, grammar, and teaching reading. Biology majors felt they needed to know more about physics or mathematics. And physical science majors were at a loss when it came to biology. Mature students who had been away from college for some years returned having forgotten a great deal and were unfamiliar with the newer developments in their fields. Interns, thus, found weaknesses in the academic part of their professional education which they hoped would be ameliorated through the college program. They were not always fortunate in this regard. "Why can't I take courses I need rather than courses the college prescribes?" is the way one older intern science teacher expressed his dissatisfaction.

Implications for the College Program

The previous discussion suggests several guidelines for the development of the college program. First, beginning interns need massive doses of support above and beyond the preparation they receive in the summer. Regardless of the effectiveness of the preinternship period, the impact of the first few weeks of responsible teaching is considerable. The resource-teacher concept is one of the sounder ideas for providing this support. As conscientious as the average supervising teacher may be, he frequently sandwiches his work with interns in between his other responsibilities. The reduced teaching load of the resource teacher, made possible by sharing two teaching programs with two or three interns, should give more time for supervision. Moreover, because the resource teacher is selected and paid by the college and is treated as a member of the college faculty, he has greater status and feels more involved and obligated than the supervising teacher. His own professional growth can be enhanced by this experience. The resource teacher can also provide more immediate and even more meaningful support and assistance than the college supervisor because he is always nearby and because he knows the situation and the children.

The resource teacher arrangement is not foolproof, obviously. All supervisory arrangements involving public school and college cooperation depend upon four factors: selecting highly competent advisers, freeing advisers to work closely with interns, developing effective ways for maintaining and enforcing agreements and for making changes when necessary, and developing good working relations and lines of communication between college and school people. The support interns receive throughout the internship period will depend directly on how well these factors are handled.

A second necessity during the early stages of the internship is that the college seminar be attuned to the problems and needs of students. The nature of this seminar will change as time passes and the needs of the students change, but the first several weeks may have to be oriented to the problems students face on the job and to helping them cope with psychological as well as professional difficulties. The person or persons conducting this seminar should be knowledgeable not only in foundations and methods of education but should be particularly astute in creating an emotional climate which encourages candid and supportive human relationships.

A third necessity, starting when the internship begins but continuing throughout the program, is providing academic courses which will best serve interns' needs as teachers. Academic courses designed for specialists, while frequently useful, may be largely irrelevant for people who are beginning to face the unique problems of teachers.

Program A tried to deal with the problems of filling gaps in interns' academic backgrounds with such courses as Foundations of Modern Physical Science, Foundations of Modern Biology, Foundations of Modern Earth Science, Foundations of Modern Mathematics, and English Content for Teachers. Each course was taught by a specialist in an academic area who also had several years of public school teaching experience. It was designed to update the knowledge of the person who had been away from the subject for some years or who had gaps in his academic preparation. These courses were available, as were advanced courses in the field of specialization, on the basis of student needs and interests, not rigid college requirements. Program B was more inflexible, in part because of changes in state certification requirements. The program required fifteen credits in academic studies for the master's degree, but some credits could be taken to strengthen areas of weakness. In addition, some courses were designed as broad surveys.

STAGE III: FLOUNDERING AND EXPERIMENTATION

This period in the intern teacher's development grows out of the previous one and is characterized by lessening tension and growing acceptance of the teacher's role. The intern who enters this stage is not likely to consider dropping out of the program. He knows he may not be an accomplished professional but is ready to "see it through." He is not always quite sure of what he is doing, his classes may be disorderly, and he is particularly anxious to find the approach which will capture the interest of his pupils. He wants to be able to turn to his supervisors for help but also wants freedom to make mistakes on his own.

Some comments from interns during this period illustrate how they feel as they pass through a phase during which they develop many of the habits and techniques they will carry with them through years of teaching:

> Last week I thought I would never again want to wake up in the morning and go to work. However, the other day one of my lessons went over so well I was convinced I was a natural-born teacher. What I want to know is how to repeat my success by design, not just by accident.

* * *

> The thing that's so frustrating is that I'm never sure whether my plans will work. Last week I was very discouraged after preparing two or three hours for a lesson, and it was a complete flop. The next day I hardly pre-

pared and the lesson was very successful. On talking it over with Mr. ...., I doubt that the difference had to do with the amount as much as the kind of preparation. For the first lesson I prepared a lecture and every question and possible answer that might come up. Instead of planning my second lesson in such detail, I only planned key questions and let the class carry the ball from there. There was much more student participation and I learned how to deliberately involve students.

* * *

I tried breaking the class into committees, with each group responsible for working on some phase of the history of Huntington. This approach sounded exciting in the methods course, but I was very dissatisfied with the results. First, the class made so much noise that the principal stopped in to see if anything was wrong. Second, I couldn't provide all the resources that the children needed. Some of them probably should have gone over to the public library or the village hall for information, and I was not prepared to take or send them out of the building during school hours. Third, some kids did no work at all so that only one or two people ran each committee. I still see value in committee work, but you need a lot of skill and preparation for committees to be effective. Fortunately, Mr. .... suggested that I try committees again later in the semester and promised to help me prepare for the next round.

* * *

An intern should have freedom to teach the way he sees fit. Of course, in the very beginning he needs help, but as time goes on, he is better able to take care of himself and the resource teacher should feel less obliged to supervise every detail of his performance. The best thing that could happen to me right now would be to get Miss .... off my back. I want supervision but not so much that I can't breathe.

* * *

I found the teachers lunchroom valuable for more than eating. This morning I had some trouble with Joe ...., and Mr. .... just was not around to discuss the problems. At lunch several teachers told me about Joe's family background and his difficulties in school and gave me ideas on how to handle him. One thing I will avoid doing in the future is trying to belittle or embarrass him before the class. This technique backfired, and I must pick up the pieces before it's too late.

These excerpts demonstrate several aspects of the floundering period. At the very time interns were developing greater assurance and confidence, they were well aware of deficiencies in their teaching methods and techniques. They welcomed advice and help from fellow teachers but, in trying to stand on their own feet, resented excessive supervision which limited their freedom to try and experiment. Feelings of success spurred them on and failure, of course, depressed them, but they could accept failure more readily than in the previous stage. Methods studied concomitantly with the internship provided a valuable resource to help them in experimenting and developing their own special styles. The most important product of this period was a general pattern of teaching which, though not permanent, would carry through in many ways for the rest of their teaching careers.

Implications for the College Program

In this period when interns are striving to develop their own teaching styles, the relationship between interns and supervisors should give freedom to experiment without casting interns adrift and should provide helpful guidance without stifling initiative. College representatives should keep a watchful eye on intern-supervisor relationships through visits, conferences, and seminars because this area is so critical in the internship program and so liable to deteriorate.

Special methods work probably is more meaningful at this time than at any other because interns recognize their needs more clearly as they meet the daily demands of teaching. The resource-teacher concept, again, has special virtues in that the resource teacher is always in the school; knows the curriculum, the students, and available equipment and materials; and has been chosen because of his effectiveness as a teacher. College specialists can also contribute to learning special methods at this time by visiting interns on the job and meeting with them periodically. The internship seminar, too, can assist with special methods as students discuss each other's teaching experiences. This period, in short, is one of the most appropriate for the study of methods and should be used to the fullest for this purpose.

The college seminar should continue to deal with practical problems but, as difficulties moderate, should begin to concern itself with wider, more theoretical issues. Philosophy, psychology, sociology, major issues and problems of education, and the problems of young people in modern society are some items better studied as the immediate demands of teaching become less pressing and interns have experiences which make these subjects more relevant and meaningful.

STAGE IV: STABILIZATION AND GROWING INDEPENDENCE

As time passes, most students gain greater confidence in themselves, develop certain patterns or styles of teaching, and become more independent of supervisors and other helpers. This change from quizzical novice to experienced teacher may sometimes take place quite suddenly but obviously could not occur without many weeks or months of trial and tribulation in the classroom. One noticeable characteristic of students who reach this stage is a growing assurance and confidence in their own perceptions and greater ability to see beneath the surface of education problems.

An older intern, serving in a deprived neighborhood, who felt unable to make contact with his children for several months described such a change to his college supervisor, as follows:

> Until four weeks ago I was ready to give up because I could not control my classes. I tried every trick I could think of, sometimes changing plans two or three times in a period when nothing worked. Every time I failed I would get stricter with the kids, would mark every disciplinary problem in my class book, and keep a few after school. One day I had some success with a

> developmental-type lesson with lots of student participation. I decided to keep on trying this lesson and found that the kids were more attentive and that I could be less strict. This combination of a steady pattern of teaching and a relaxed attitude on my part seemed to make the difference. I would attribute the pupils' settling down to their need for regular routines and for a teacher who was an example of stability they may not have had outside of school.

Toward the end of the first semester, interns seemed to lose interest in a problem-centered seminar and indicated readiness for more theoretical studies. They even appeared somewhat cynical about what the college could offer in the way of practical knowledge in view of what they were learning on the job.

One intern put it this way:

> The college cannot compete with the school on practical matters because college people just don't understand what it is like in our situation. The college should stick to what it can handle best—theory—and school people should stick to the practical. I know what I'm about in my classes and don't need any general discussions of specific problems. You should concentrate on educational and social theory and subjects such as remedial reading, or ways of working with emotionally disturbed or academically retarded children.

Most interns felt that the close supervision provided earlier in Program B had become unnecessary and that resource teachers had become more casual in their supervision, which was as it should be. Some began to chafe at being interns because their teaching responsibilities were restricted. They felt they could handle a regular teacher's load and should be receiving a regular teacher's salary. Others were less impatient, feeling that perhaps they were not quite ready for a full teaching load. To prevent inequities and possible dissolution of the program due to raiding by hard-pressed school systems, credit was withheld for all courses in education until the full-year internship was completed. Program A was far more susceptible to raiding because it made no such provision, but it would be hard to prove that students who left after only one semester of interning were less adequate teachers than interns forced to stay for two semesters.

INTERN REACTIONS TO DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

Interns in Programs A and B were generally placed in typical urban and surburban schools with student populations of mixed socioeconomic and racial backgrounds. The reactions of interns to teaching deprived children in mixed or segregated classes in the city or suburbs deserve special attention because of the growing crisis in educating the underprivileged.

Interns rarely had difficulty adjusting to middle-class children. Frequently, those who did seemed to have emotional problems or found the rigidity of the middle-class, academic curriculum and classroom too confining. But even fairly stable individuals found teaching deprived children difficult. The major problem they found in dealing with underprivileged or lower-class white, colored, or Puerto Rican children was discipline. Some classes visited by supervisors were bedlam, although interns literally tried every technique and trick they knew to control their pupils. The effective resource or cooperating teacher and the wise school administrator who told social studies interns to discard the mandated curriculum and concentrate on problems of living in urban society were especially helpful in facilitating inter-pupil relations. But it was obvious that interns needed better preparation for this experience.

The course, Teaching in Urban Schools, in addition to related professional laboratory experiences in Program B, was obviously a more suitable arrangement than the choice of courses without laboratory experiences in Program A. Yet, one student could still say:

> It's one thing to go into the schools, to read *Mark of Oppression* or *Crisis in Black and White,* and to sympathize with these children, but it's an entirely different thing to empathize with them. I understand their problems intellectually but I can't really understand and accept their behavior and feelings. I think teachers of deprived children must have far deeper experiences with the life-problems of their children than the average teacher of middle-class children.

From this viewpoint, neither Program A nor Program B was adequate. Teaching deprived children, especially deprived Negro children, requires special knowledge and attitudes, and neither program went far enough in this direction. Possibly a special curriculum incorporating many of Elliott Shapiro's proposals should be designed for teachers of underprivileged children. Dr. Shapiro suggested that such a program should replace conventional college courses in the professional sequence with workshops or practicums immediately related to the classroom experiences of students preparing for teaching through internships. He suggested that the subjects or topics to be covered in the program include the following:

The relationship of different educational philosophies to classroom management, activities, and experiences.

Methods and principles of teaching as developed from the classroom experiences of the interns.

Methods and principles of teaching reading and mathematics through analyzing the classroom experiences of the interns.

Methods and principles for presenting the history of Africa and the contributions of the American Negro to American history.

Analysis of the deficiencies of social studies textbooks in order to develop a desirable social studies curriculum.

Dynamics of a changing society as observed in classroom activities and experiences.

The psychology of expressive behavior of children and teachers as observed in the classroom experiences of the interns.

The psychology of normal and of abnormal behavior of children and teachers as observed in class.

The psychology of the motivation of human behavior.

The psychology of individual differences.

Seminar in educational research.

Methods and materials for studying Latin-American cultures.

Spanish for teachers of children from Puerto Rico.

Critique of research in language arts, curriculum, and teaching.

Principles and methods of developing original, creative dramatizations that would reflect the problems of the community.

The role of the school life of teachers organizations and participation in them.[1]

On a deeper level, the traumatic experiences of some interns in difficult schools suggest the need for certain kinds of psychotherapeutic techniques, including individual counseling, group therapy, and sensitivity training. Experiments conducted in one New York City school by psychiatrists from the Albert Einstein College of Medicine indicated the value of these approaches with regular teachers and have important implications for internship programs.

Finally, those who teach the underprivileged must be helped to develop a psychological immunity toward frustration and failure by taking to heart Max Ascoli's admonition:

> What our nation's tragedy demands of us, and particularly of those who happen to be white, is restraint and charity—charity even toward those who show little evidence of capacity for understanding and sympathy. We must give this charity to the utmost and with full awareness that the riotous or sullen groups who have become unresponsive to spiritual values multiply our obligation to act for them and on them.
>
> Perhaps it would be better to be a little less restrained and call these values by their proper name, which is love. Love does not mean refusal to pass judgment on those who are guilty of evil-doing or to grant indiscriminate amnesty on the ground of ancestral guilt. Love means active faith in the ineradicable humaneness even of those who never knew they had it buried within themselves.

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[1] Hentoff, Nat. *Our Children Are Dying.* New York: Viking Press, 1966. pp. 130-31.

CHAPTER X

Resources for Internship

While providing extended time for the preparation of teachers through internship experiences, teacher educators are also becoming aware of their responsibility to furnish more resources during the internship. Resources are defined as support, aid, or the collective wealth of an environment; the assets; and the capable human potential. The record of support for teacher education is not a proud one. In fact, few college administrators care to reveal the actual expenditure per teacher candidate. A medical resource figure of $6500 per doctor candidate each year appeared recently in the *Detroit News.*[1] It would be surprising if the total cost of preparing a teacher were in excess of $4000 for the professional courses of the teacher education curriculum. Also, if one were to catalogue all the possible components of the university and public school environments, he would be astounded at how few are being consistently utilized by the teacher education programs.

PARTNERSHIP IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Internship-type programs have caused colleges and public schools to reexamine the types of support and attitudes maintained in the past. Decisions to work together in teacher education were necessitated by the increased enrollments in the nation's colleges and universities. The need for adequate teacher education laboratory stations mandated a rapid shift from university campus communities to adjacent and noncontiguous community settings. Campus community teacher education contracts have been matters of convenience over the years: "We need your classrooms; you need our teachers. The university supplies your need just by being here." Convenience, if not exploitation, dominated many programs, and neither partner in the teacher education venture pushed the other to mature the environmental potential.

Paid teaching internships have required school districts to reserve teaching stations for university interns. The selection of supervisors for interns has demanded some new considerations about qualities and characteristics of supervisors. The expenditure of tangible funds and the release of personnel for supervision are pivotal points which may cause a more mature teacher education partnership. Corollary need for instructional space for university faculty, student teaching seminars, and meetings for supervising teachers has required the school districts many miles from the university campus to make new contributions to the partnership. The precedents have been set. Money, classrooms, personnel, and equipment have changed the producer-consumer roles of yesteryear.

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[1] Detroit News. "Medical Standards for M.D.'s and D.O.'s." (Series) *Detorit News,* September 25-October 1, 1966.

Much remains to be accomplished in maturing the teacher education partnership. Supervising teachers, either associated with teachers organizations or independently, must become involved in the decisions of design, placement, class size, teaching load, and the nature of supervision and evaluation. Adequate support for all phases of teacher education, and especially the laboratory and clinical stages, will result only when sufficient political pressure is brought to bear upon state, federal, and local decision makers.

READINESS FOR DIALOGUE

A discovery of the environmental potential begins with the student's initial contact with the preinternship program. During microteaching, methods, and student teaching, the teacher candidate must be surrounded with the material and human resources which best facilitate his initial teaching behavior. He should be groomed to expect the full instrumentation of instruction and learning. When compared with the field of medicine, our teacher candidates are deprived of the technical and human resources most necessary in each stage of development. Intern teachers can be nurtured to a readiness to operate beyond the initial vocational level. Some student teachers perform well above expectation for most beginning teachers, but the majority enter their first position with incomplete professional development.

The professional dimension would be more complete if programs provided the autonomous factor present in the intern station. The autonomy of decision, coupled with the support and mirroring dialogue of an intern supervisor, assists the intern teacher to reach an operational plane rarely possible in the majority of student teaching situations. The resource of an inquiry dialogue is proving invaluable to countless intern candidates across the nation. Asking questions of a colleague about one's own classroom, one's decisions about the learners in the classroom, is not normative behavior in many buildings today. Team teaching has received novelty implementation but has faltered in many districts for lack of supporting models from prior training. Confusion of personality and status with instructional function has frustrated the maturation of interaction among colleagues. A few enlightened building administrators have provided the necessary observation, interest, and interaction to encourage teachers to continue their vocational development toward a competency level, but, by and large, most of the nation's practicing educators have not matured much beyond the vocational dimension.

In internship, educators have the opportunity to develop the professional dimension on a broader scale for the first time. Personal inquiry into the mechanical and operational functions of teaching can be examined in greater detail with the aid of a colleague within the instructional setting. Inquiry that normally occurs after some initial practice in a professionally supervised room and after assumption of autonomy is quite different from the inquiry that occurs during student teaching. Few of us ever enjoyed the pleasure of a continuous conversation about particular aspects or patterns of personal behavior as we engaged in teaching behavior beyond the student teaching phase of our careers. True, we may have had experiences later in our development but not a series of sustained dialogues at the formative stage in becoming a teacher.

The cognitive becoming of a teacher is best represented by the ideational plane of the candidate. The aspiring teacher needs a sounding board for ideas. A wife or husband in an unrelated occupational field may not always be the correct type of respondent. Talking with mother or father does not provide for the beginning teacher the intensity of focus which can be set up by a professional colleague who shares experiences in a personal learning environment. The professional dimension develops as the candidate learns to discuss with another the rationale for his decisions. When two professionals can examine an instructional episode, analyze the assets and the diminishing factors, and attempt to relate theory to the resulting behaviors, then and only then can we safely assume we are on the threshold of developing a bridge to professionalism. Skeptics might say, "But we can do these things now without an internship." Have you observed in many classrooms; have you listened to many teacher discussions; have you listened to pupils and students discuss the current scene; and have you been confronted with eager, hungering, experienced classroom teachers literally starved for professional dialogue about their classrooms, their instructional styles, their own learning behavior? Yes, it can happen without internship, but it hasn't! The model for professional dialogue has not been consistently provided in the preparation of teachers.

SELECTIVE ASSIGNMENTS

Despite the national teacher shortage, current capacity for preparing teachers is overtaxed and under-supported. The deluge of teacher candidates caught many institutions asleep in the early fifties. Two decades later, colleges are assuming more initiative for expansion. Unfortunately, the administrative concerns are focused upon mass-producing classroom teachers. This merely replicates earlier design faults on a grand scale.

In the past we have selected school districts for teacher education which represented fiscal soundness, curricular balance, general faculty stability, willingness to participate, and convenience for the student teacher candidates. Before the onslaught of increased enrollment, we were rather selective in the choice of supervisors and classroom environments; lately we have begun to sprawl without adequate safeguards for ensuring quality control. Standards of selection ought to be cooperatively developed by the classroom teachers, administrators, and teacher education faculty. Each student teacher should expect to see acceptable models of good teaching behavior and receive continuous support for his own efforts to become a teacher.

Another aspect of selectivity is the population residing in the school district. We have tended, for the convenience of students, to select a limited number of schools. Accusations have been leveled at several institutions because it appears they have deliberately avoided the most severe learning problems in the most disadvantaged neighborhoods. Federal support has shifted some institutional focuses to these challenging instructional settings.

New teachers are frequently assigned the least desirable teaching stations and the least imaginative teaching materials and schedules and required to tutor disadvantaged learners. Perhaps we could assume the theory behind these practices is that youth and enthusiasm can overcome the challenge of slow learners, deprived neighborhoods, or hopefully, that the teacher education programs are equipping the new teacher with the skills and understanding needed. The teacher shortage, the exodus of experienced teachers from the most challenging settings, is a serious indictment of teacher education and the profession. It supports the argument that, lacking skills and adequate resources, frustrated and frightened teachers are withdrawing. Overwhelmed and lacking rewards for their efforts, they retire to safer instructional settings or drop out of teaching.

Intern stations in some communities have represented a trend toward assignment in the most difficult schools or to the building position no experienced professional desires. This practice is no more justified for the intern than for the student teacher. An intern should expect to be assigned to an environment representing a typical population for the school district; it may be inner-city, but if it is, the maximum resources of the district should be delivered to each teacher in that setting. Interns should be surrounded with successful, competent, certified teachers and supported by capable and imaginative administrators.

Within the school building and at each grade level, the placement of learners is the responsibility of the faculty and the administration. Decisions are based upon test scores, classroom performance, and course election by the pupil. It would be hard to prove, but experienced educators are aware that difficult learners have a habit of appearing on the roster of certain teachers. A certain number of such assignments result because of the skill of the particular teacher in reaching a satisfactory working agreement with the learner in question. In a few instances, difficult learners regularly appear on the roster of the newest faculty members in such numbers as to preclude reasonable success during the first year of teaching. Unfair placement and cases of imbalance should be the concern of every teacher practitioner and administrator.

The teaching schedule and class load also frequently are factors preventing initial teaching success. The number and range of preparations should be carefully considered by faculty and administration in planning instructional assignments for intern teachers. Internship offers an excellent opportunity for the profession to examine the teaching load assigned to beginning teachers.

Under partnership controls, loads should be varied and studied to determine the validity of the principle of sameness which has governed teacher entry for generations. An intern teacher might expect to teach fewer hours each day or one less day each week. Class size might be reduced by one-half or one-fourth and studied for resultant behavior of teacher and learners.

SPOIL THE NEW TEACHERS

"Back when I started teaching, I didn't receive all this help, consultant services, smaller classes, fewer hours, and unlimited material resources."

"The only way to learn how to teach is to close your classroom door and begin teaching."

"If you know your subject, what else is there?"

"Why should we spoil these new teachers?"

There is ample evidence that the generations-old pattern of teacher initiation is not completely satisfactory. Studies indicate that teacher disillusionment occurs early in the career. Less than 50 percent of those who begin teaching remain longer than five years. Geer[2] attributed this attrition to minimal professional preparation, lack of an internship, and limited visibility and maneuverability after a teaching career is begun.

Some educators fear that if we spoil the intern teacher we might have to change assignments, load, hours, and composition of classes for all classroom teachers. This may be so, but a great amount of reason should prevail concerning the expectations for the beginning teachers. Some beginners will be able to function above normative conditions but too frequently they will be stunted in growth within a few seasons. The great majority of teachers will begin under normative conditions and will struggle in isolation. A few will falter and leave within the first year and, again, 50 percent will be gone in five years under present conditions for starting a career in education.

It is time for a serious reexamination of initial teaching experiences.

KNOWLEDGE AND HUMAN BEHAVIOR

The burgeoning inputs of liberal arts content and the meaningful communication of that content in field or laboratory situations continue to plague teacher preparation programs. The forces mounted to protect the integrity of the teaching major outweigh the minds bent upon creating a realistic articulation between knowledge and solution of human problems. Internship provides a rare opportunity to vitalize the content of the teaching major and, perhaps as important, to reformulate the design. University faculty, in dialogue with the classroom practitioner, will need to intensify the exchange of insights about the accumulation of facts, informations, and interpretations and the complications of working with the current generation of learners.

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[2] Geer, Blanche. "Occupational Commitment and the Teaching Profession." *School Review* 74: 31-47; Spring 1966.

It would seem fitting if the university faculty were to initiate feedback systems which would more effectively help liberal arts faculty perceive the true nature of the situational environment in which the teaching scholar must eventually market his preparation. This is not to suggest that the universities became more vocationally oriented but that they modify their teacher education role in an accelerated society. Science, medicine, mathematics, sociology, law, business, and agriculture, to name a few fields, are directly linked to the business and economic community. Some universities now exist by serving the grants and funds available in this decade, as shown by the priority given to research in many institutions. I enter a plea that we become as skilled in transmitting ideas and concepts from college classroom to the minds and changed behaviors of children and youth as we are in transmitting facts into the production of things for the consuming public in our economy.

The university faculty, in cooperation with the public school classroom teacher, needs to explore different ways of bringing content resources to the classroom after the teaching major is initially completed. Perhaps lack of clear relationships between English, geography, mathematics, civics, economics, art, and music and human behaviors or human needs is the crux of the current dilemma. No one has consistently helped the prospective teacher develop these relationships during preparation or following certification.

The intern supervisor, acting as catalyst, may be able to help develop the skills of the intern teacher in researching his content major as needed or to facilitate his return to the university faculty for consultation about ideational hang-ups.

UNIVERSITY RESOURCES

The multiuniversity is a massive, complex enterprise. Internship thrusts a senior or graduate into a partnership between the public school and the university, both hopefully able to deliver a set of resources to the beginning educational practitioner. Actually, however, little has been done to tap consistently the full potential of the university.

An intern teacher should expect to become a participant in a clinical environment. He becomes a ready consumer of foundational information undergirding psychology, learning theory, and social behavior. In his effort to relate theory to his teaching behaviors, the intern will need some assistance in linking his functional moves to a rational base. Either by dialogue with supporting supervisors or through peer seminars, personal reading, and reinforcing models, the university must help create the framework for the articulation.

We have assumed that the normal maturation of the teacher candidate adequately accommodates growth in theoretical perceptions. In some fashion, preintern experiences must begin to provide the opportunity and the models which best illustrate some of the important theoretical pillars.

In the past, the college as producer has designed a teacher education curriculum, opened the doors, and begun the processing of candidates. Part of the program was foundational or theoretical in nature and part applied, of necessity, in a laboratory or field setting. Even today, little effort has been made in cooperating communities to involve the public school personnel in program development. Without depth participation in program planning, we continue to perpetuate a producer-consumer relationship. Neither the candidates nor the public school partner have been very skillful in insisting that certain minimum resources be furnished by the preparing institution.

The case, rather, has been to prepare teacher candidates on as small a budget as can be spared from other more important concerns of colleges of education. It even takes money to develop an attitude toward resources on the part of the teacher education faculty. On too many campuses the preparation of undergraduate or graduate teacher candidates is really not the publicity-gaining, glamour operation. The attitude is often, "Teacher education will perpetuate itself; any faculty member can handle it; chalk and a blackboard are all that is needed." Witness the dangerous trend toward herding teacher candidates through mass education experiences with little concern for the self-concept developed in such cost-saving designs. This latter trend is best facilitated with a large lecture hall, a microphone, the latest projection equipment, and multiple-choice examinations. All this can be supplemented, to salve the professional conscience, by placing the many teacher candidates in seminar sections with graduate students little experienced in teaching and even less knowledgeable about helping a young person learn how to become a teacher.

There will be few new resources for beginning teachers until institutions reexamine their current program designs. For too long we have reacted to severe teacher shortages and massive enrollments; our faculties are numbed to quality concerns. We have become a profession of store-minders—acting out a role without sincere commitment to the needed changes in tomorrow's teacher education programs. If we were to listen to the student teachers, the intern teachers, and the multitude of disillusioned alumni, we might hear the plea for a new order in teacher preparation. Certainly a 50 percent dropout rate in teaching is a clear indictment of the present establishment.

Few colleges maintain records which clearly and quickly indicate unit costs. Should we submit to cost analysis, time studies, and quality-quantity research, teacher educators would be surprised, not that teachers drop out, but that some do stay and perform successfully. Perhaps some sanity will reign in our colleges of education as a result of student militancy. The increasingly higher entrance standards are furnishing a more sophisticated teacher candidate who is very reluctantly pursuing the poorly resourced teacher education programs. If teacher educators push for quality now, they will forestall a major revolution later. Colleges of education should grow in quality with their changing clientele.

CLINICAL ENVIRONMENT

A clinical environment in teacher education has three components:

1. A service function to the children or youth being educated
2. A teaching function for the students of education attempting to become beginning teachers, or experienced teachers in residence for training or retraining
3. A research function to serve teacher education and the schools.

An ideal clinical environment for internship would have many faces. We envision a network of public school buildings, each with a distinct district theme. One building might be attempting a new reading approach. Others might be concerned with mental health, health education, modern mathematics, the process approach to science, conceptual approaches in early childhood education, individualized programmed instruction for social studies, faculty seminars, case conference approaches to learning problems, preschool experiences for three- and four-year-olds, team teaching in fine arts, or a middle-school rationale for disadvantaged neighborhoods.

In each case, the faculty, with full support of the district board, teachers organizations, and the university staff, would design materials, conduct research, implement programs, train candidates, and evaluate. A single theme, in addition to usual school operations, would identify each demonstration school in the clinical system. Hopefully, other colleges in the university could be linked to the network as needed.

Prestudent teaching observations, teacher-aide roles, student teaching, and finally internship opportunities would be provided in the clinical settings. The resident faculty would be carefully selected and prepared to function in such an environment. School districts could begin to view such schools as training sites for future supervisory staff, special curriculum consultants, building administrators, research personnel, and paraprofessionals.

The increased departmentalization, team teaching, utilization of paraprofessionals, and individualized approaches to instruction diminish objections to cluster placements of students of education. The many faces of instruction confronting today's child certainly negate arguments of tired educators who would rather not be bothered with student teachers anyway. If pupils in our schools are hardened to student teachers, then we in teacher education are guilty of exercising little imagination in placement or expansion of our networks. A clinical network would demand purposeful, directed, and measured controls of placement in a setting.

Envision a team of educators working with pupils: a supervising teacher (model leader) guiding a team of two or more student teachers, assisted by some prestudent teaching participants and perhaps an intern stationed adjacent with his colleague consultant and available as a resource to all members of the team. By the time a candidate completed his preparation he would have served as an observer-teacher assistant, student teacher, and intern in one or more thematic clinical environments. He would have observed many teacher behavior models, consumed and produced research data generated in the practitioner environment, and participated in a professional dialogue concerned with reality but focused on a theme in education. The theme of the ongoing program of the NEA's National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS), "The Teacher and His Staff," would be exemplified consistently in each teacher education setting.

Human and Technological Support

The clinical environment for the intern would also feature maximum district-university support from other disciplines; for example, medicine for organismic problems of learners, psychiatry for cases best serviced from that dimension, learning theorists to assist in examining learning modes, instructional consultants to help in analyzing teaching strategies, media experts to assist in the study of objectives in programming, guidance personnel to support procedures of candidate-faculty-pupil self-appraisal. The involvement of these specialized resource components would be the decision of the building advisory group representing interns, teacher practitioners, district administration, and teacher education faculty from the university.

Maximum effort should be expended to ensure complete technological support, adequate facilities, and the broadest variety of instructional materials for each teacher education setting. *Hardware* is the term commonly utilized in the technological field for equipment, computers, and instructional tools which aid man in behaving rationally, which permit him to be more human. Internship demands the latest hardware to support the analytic requirements in instruction. If we require an intern teacher to examine his own vocational, professional, and personal dimensions, we must supply him with the videotaper, the audio-recorder, the time-lapse camera, the analysis scales with computer treatment, and the teacher behavior manuals. The facts at the present are that we do not consistently use many of these aids with the two hundred thousand teaching candidates prepared in America each year. Hardware unlimited is primarily for the funded program enjoying the current spotlight. Each prospective teacher should expect to find all the latest instrumentation of education and communication supporting his candidacy through the tenure period.

Values of Linkage

In such a setting, preservice and in-service teacher education would be linked realistically for the first time. By creating thematic demonstration-clinic schools in real societal settings, teacher education would foster the research linkage between practice and theoretical bases for behaving in education. From these richer settings school districts would achieve the upgrading of faculties and programs, teacher practitioners would become more visible through reputation as newer ideas were disseminated throughout the district. Teachers would gain an expertise with themes needing attention in an array of thematic environments, particularly in the urban districts. The university school of education would have a clinical arm to support its theoretical positions. Its applied researchers would have ample opportunities to study real problems in settings with some measured controls. The service image of the school of education would be greatly enhanced; its identification with the several themes would provide its undergraduates and graduates with considerable challenge in developing independent studies.

The student population being educated could not help but benefit from all the added resources. The Hawthorne effect alone would enhance the environment. Considerably more attention would benefit each learner; new patterns of educational programming would make for exciting classrooms. Parents would certainly welcome the opportunity to have their children and young people in such school settings.

Internship in such clinical settings ought to be the right of every teacher candidate in America. Internship provides time to more fully develop the vocational, personal, and professional dimensions of each candidate. Each passing day evidences more reminders that the American society is paced incorrectly for human growth. In teacher education, the time pattern has been rigidly replicated for several decades. From five to six years should be allocated for initial preparation for teaching. The pendulum of professional concern appears poised to swing in support of a more humane induction into teaching. Increasing numbers of school districts are joining with universities in providing continuing supervision, resources, and visibility for beginning teachers. Every teacher in America should accept the challenge of reducing the 50 percent teacher drop-out rate by helping to correct our lingering inability to induct teachers effectively or to prepare them adequately so they will remain in the profession in the quest of inquiry. Hopefully, they, too, will sense the excitement of influencing human behavior in the parent of all professions.

CHAPTER XI

Developing Teacher Behavior in Clinical Settings

It has always been hard to tell a fad from a trend. Innovations come and go. Progress is elusive. Only the hindsight of history gives a reliable perspective. Even when a new way of doing things seems to be getting at a basic need or a long-standing shortcoming in education, it may disappear as quickly as it arose.

INTERNSHIP AS TREND

Internship is not a new idea. Denoting a formally programmed training operation, internship is a twentieth-century term; but the precedents for supervised, semiautonomous, on-the-job training can be traced to Biblical times. There is a persistence in the logic of internship and a durability of the basic strategy which, like the smoldering of a quietly stubborn fire, bursts into flame from time to time, often in unexpected places. This apparently unpredictable waxing and waning gives internship the superficial appearance of a fad. It is tempting not to take it seriously. It is professionally unwise to be identified with a fad—"trends" which die aborning take their sponsors with them.

But is internship a fad? Granted that certain ways of implementing an internship, particularly the gimmick programs, are likely to come and go, internship as a basic mode of professional training is more than likely here to stay. As defined in this yearbook, internship as the individually tailored mix of autonomy and supervision, of independence and support, of growth and evaluation, is virtually unchallenged as a responsible mode of instruction. It is important to note how the critical attacks on professional training in recent times either have omitted internship from the diatribes or, more significantly, have held up internship as the comparison model: "Why can't all of professional training be as worthwhile as the internship?" Student teaching, rudimentarily a sort of primitive internship, came through the denunciations of the 1950's stronger than ever. More recently, Dr. Conant champions the student teaching phase of the undergraduate program and endorses (almost willy-nilly) the various species of teacher educative internships while raising serious doubts about the worth of the rest of the activities of schools of education. Durability distinguishes a fad from a trend. By this test, internship is far more than a fad.

Durability is a somewhat negative test. Professional commitments should be made on other grounds. The more important criterion by which a significant innovation is distinguished from a fad is the contribution or potential contribution of the trend to the better understanding of basic phenomena. On this count, internship fares especially well.

The basic phenomena of the education profession are *educational* phenomena. By contrast, human development, human growth, human learning—environmental effects on these, social effects on these, psychological responses and interactions with these—are concepts too broad to be considered basic phenomena of the professional educator. For sure, they are related to the educational phenomena, but they are more all-encompassing. The professional educator in our society functions within fairly closely prescribed limits. The variables he controls are delimited. He manipulates *instructional* variables. The pupil brings the learning variables and the social variables, in the larger sense. The practitioner of education must be particularly knowledgeable about the variables which are his to control, and he must know how these will impact upon the variables he does not control. Here is the basic measure of professionality in the practitioner; it is concerned less with generalizations and more with specifications.

To the extent that the basic phenomena of education are educational phenomena, the appropriate training program for the professional person must be directly concerned with educational phenomena. To the extent that educational phenomena are specific (rather than general), the appropriate training program must provide experience in dealing with specific problems. Here is the essential strength of internship training; it is concerned with specific problems in real contexts.

Yet, since internship is claimed to be more than a glorified apprenticeship, there has to be a dimension of learning deeper than the skills of arbitrary grappling with random "problems in real contexts." What is this deeper dimension for the educator? To what unforeseen problems and tasks must the specific experiences of internship transfer? What is the generalization value of the internship? These are the questions that fundamentally challenge a mode of professional preparation. The answers distinguish internship as being far more than a faddish flash on the long horizon of history.

The Deeper Dimension

The "bag-of-tricks" model of teaching was never very popular. Throughout the long history of education—from the primitive and tribal, through the mystical and symbolic, to the technological and iconoclastic—the teacher in all eras and for all tasks has been recognized as being more than an actor of mechanistic roles. Though the teacher has rarely been recognized in his true import as controller of the destiny of the society, it is even more rare for a society to accept for long a model of teaching in which the teacher remains aloof or detached from the active processes of involvement with learners on mutually significant terms. In this era we say that the teacher is a co-learner with the pupil. In earlier times it was the matter of ethical example, and before that the sagacious interrogator of youth. Methods shift according to cultural demand, but the deeper dimension of teaching remains more constant —involvement with learners.

How can teaching, then, be taught? It is difficult to justify activities in teacher education which fail to move the trainee into a deeper appreciation of the need for involvement with learners. Particularly vulnerable are the impersonal collegiate experiences in which instructors and students seem to meet each other at fingertip distance from two separate worlds. But there is another, less apparent shortcoming in the contemporary teacher education program—the teaching of pedagogical methodology as if it were a body of precepts. The critics of professional education have had difficulty putting a finger precisely on the shortcomings of the theoretical portions of the preparation curriculum. Sometimes they argue that there is no theoretical side of education, but a quick glance at the vast output of odds and ends about human learning which the pyschologists have generated sets that criticism aside. So they argue that the psychology and sociology faculties should teach these data—until they see how unprepared to face children in the classroom these bits and pieces of data leave prospective teachers. And then the challenge turns again to exactly what it should be that the professional education faculty should teach the prospective trainee. Sooner or later the critics who are willing to debate or test their contentions concede that the experience of student teaching or internship is a realistic necessity and that something or other should be done to prepare the student teacher or intern to operate successfully in the classroom. But what? And here is where the professional educator is often uneasy. If what we do before the internship is important, why do students so often react negatively? Students seem so vulnerable to the siren song of the teacher next door who seductively whispers, "Just forget that garbage they taught you at the university and I'll show you how we do things here." Could it be that our approach to methodology and the reality of the internship experience are in conflict?

Teaching must be taught in its own terms. It should be apparent that, since example is a powerful influence, the way teachers are taught will structure, to a large extent, what they think teaching is supposed to be. Thus, the first proposition is that good teaching models should be characteristic of the preinternship professional courses. *What* the subject matter of these courses is to be raises another issue. Typically, the justification for a preinternship course is that it provides "principles." The course may be educational psychology, educational sociology, methods of teaching, or any of the proliferated euphemisms for these titles, but the course description invariably talk about principles of one thing or another. Is teaching, in its own terms, a matter of applying principles or rather of constantly generating, testing, and refining hypotheses? We have assumed the former for quite a while; it is time to test the latter. The second proposition is that preinternship courses should convey an understanding of methodology as a body of hypotheses upon which a teacher acts—testing and refining, thus tuning and retuning to the changing and varied needs and characteristics of learners. The deeper dimension of internship is its potentiality for establishing patterns of continuing refinement of the propositions upon which the teacher bases his moment-by-moment interaction and involvement with learners.

Transfer of Learning to New Problems and Tasks

In an era of innovation and revision, the profession has learned the value of flexibility. Now, it is easy enough to understand what the sociologists have been saying for years—that the forces of social change are accelerating, that a technological domination is upon us, and that basic social roles in the family and in the school are changing. In many occupations and professions, elements of the old guard are staging last-ditch battles against inevitability, and sadly, a false aspiration for modernity entices many others into valuing change for the sake of change.

From a research standpoint, education lacks an adequate theoretical base from which to generate experiments and evaluative criteria for the new technology of teaching. Old models of comparative evaluations are inadequate to the challenge. The variables are too intertwined, the hypothetical values too poorly defined. Studies keep showing "no significant difference." But the practitioner *sees* differences; he knows they are there. So he discounts the research. In the final analysis, the subjective judgments of individual practitioners determine whether a teaching procedure or an instructional material will be accepted or rejected.

There are two ways to view this dilemma. On the one hand, it is reasonable enough to push the panic button. There are floods of new things to do in classrooms; we must erect barriers against them or be inundated. It is virtually impossible to objectively sort out the promising innovations from the opportunistic innovations. We must keep the faith, the *old* faith. Or we can view the situation as a fresh set of imperatives to get the house in order. If we lack an adequate theoretical base, we must renew our efforts to build one. If we lack ways to evaluate effectiveness in terms of learning, we must design them. If teachers find change threatening, we must teach them how to accept and shape change. Here is where internship holds such important promise.

The sort of precept-oriented approach to methodology that is characteristic of a principles-type teacher training is simply inadequate for today's era of rapid change. Any professional preparation program, indeed, any experience within a program, must be assessed in terms of its contribution to the trainee's capability of functioning over time in a series of changing styles, modes, and roles, many of these unknown and unpredictable at present. The professional needs a set of behaviors which begin with a way of looking at things, a way of diagnosing, a way of postulating alternative actions, a way of estimating probabilities, a way of deciding and implementing, a way of evaluating outcomes, and a way of feeding the meaning of outcomes back into his way of looking at things. If during his professional training he can learn to behave in such a tactical cycle of operations, he will be in a position to change *knowledgeably* as the demands of his clients and environment change. The internship is precisely the occasion to adopt such a cyclic style and the behaviors which it requires.

Generalization Value of the Internship

No training program, however rich in field experiences, can provide direct experience with all the situations, problems, and issues which will occur in the practitioner's world. (If it could, the program would be more correctly called apprenticeship.) It is precisely the impossibility of giving supervised practice in *all* problems that makes internship important. The particular internship assignment should probably be selected to have some similarity to the situation in which the trainee will be employed after internship, but the more important concern is that the internship have generalization value adequate to encompass the several situations in which the newly arrived professional might find himself. This criterion forces us to evaluate internship itself in terms of generalization value. In teacher education it is not nearly so important that preinternship courses prepare the trainee to behave like an intern as it is that internship prepare him to behave like a teacher.

Exactly what is required of a teacher in any given situation is never very clear. How teachers in general are to behave while engaged in teaching acts is even more imprecisely defined. For many years teacher education programs have designated certain experiences "special methods" courses and others "general methods" courses, but there is no empirical base for these distinctions. We are not very clear on what is general and what is special when comparing the teaching of different subjects or different age levels. We are even less clear on what experiences are important and what experiences are unimportant for an intern. Generalization is a problem not only of *kind* but of *importance* of experiences.

The significance of internship in providing a generalization of *kind* lies in its naturalism. Since it is carried on in a real environment (not predictably different from that which will confront the beginning professional), its generalization is a product of natural occurrences rather than the selections of a fallible preceptor. The significance of internship in providing a generalization of *importance* lies in its mode of supervision: the senior practitioner's capability of assisting the intern in the identification and reflective study of the experiences which are particularly crucial, problematic, sequential, or in some other way important is the most significant supervisory contribution to the generalization value of internship. Internship, then, has a high generalization value in *kind* of experiences and, in terms of supervisory contribution, in *importance* of experiences.

It is the important combination of senior practitioner supervision and clinical experience which makes internship training one of the most important innovations in the brief history of modern teacher education.

INTERNSHIP AS CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

Internship, when examined for its particular contributions, for its uniqueness, and for its promise, leads to a view of teaching and the environment of teaching activity as being educative processes in themselves. In order to examine the internship as a learning experience, certain concepts, terminology, and propositions are useful. The particular concepts and terminology concern *models,* as the behavioral scientist conceives them, and *clinical* processes, in a rather delimited sense. The proposition which arises is one of viewing teacher improvement as a *cyclical process* of hypothesizing, acting, evaluating, and rehypothesizing.

Models of Teaching

Every teacher acts out a model of teaching. There are virtually as many models of teaching as there are teachers. But these models overlap, they fall into clusters of like and nearly-like behavior, and they can be compared. *Model,* in the useful sense of the term, is borrowed from other fields of behavioral framework within which a person or group of persons is acting out a role or roles. It is the behaving rather than the attitudes about the behaving that constitutes the behavioral model. Thus, it is what a teacher *does* that defines what is in the model and what a teacher avoids doing that delimits the model. *Model* as ideal or optimization, as perfection or utopian example, is not at all the sense in which the term is used.

The limits of models of teaching may be wide or narrow. One teacher may act within a narrow range of self—and other—tolerances; another teacher may act out a wide latitude of self—and other—tolerances. These two may agree on some borders of their model of teacher behavior and not agree on others. For example, they may disagree about when to frown or whether to reject a late assignment, but they may agree that a teacher cannot kick a pupil. On more gross or societally regulated behavior, agreement (coincidence) between models is common. On more subtle or purely professionally regulated behaviors, agreement is less common.

Models and Attitudes

For many years, research on teachers and teaching has been cast in the framework of psychological investigation. The determinants of behavior have been given more attention than the behaviors themselves. The investigative instruments in most common use today reflect this fact. Teacher attitudes, stances, personality traits, preferences, values, and other such psychological constructs are tested for possible correlation with each other and with various concepts of *success*—success in adjusting, success in student teaching, success in first-year teaching, and so forth. There are attempts to push almost any identifiable correlations into predictions. The desperate search for valid correlative criteria and the widely argued need for entrance screening for teacher education make the predictive use of psychological measurement very appealing. But in the cool of afterthought, we note that personality is a stubborn set of phenomena, not readily altered by selected educative experiences. Compounding the problem, we have only shaky grounds on which to argue that any given psychological element or personality trait is really a determinant of competence in teaching. And, even if we could be sure, would we be willing to admit that such a determinant might be virtually unchangeable within the student's limited exposure to professional preservice courses?

Psychological inquiry must continue. Far more remains to be learned through studies of personality and the impact of experiences in professional education on the teacher's mental and emotional processes. In addition, research on teaching and teacher education needs to intensify the behavioral dimension. It is not enough to examine attitudes about teaching, attitudes toward pupils, and attitudes toward peers and administrators. The manifestation of an attitude is in the behavior of the teacher: how he acts (what he *does*) while teaching, what he communicates to pupils, and how he conducts himself with his peers and administrators.

That teacher education should similarly be intensely concerned with the behavioral aspects of teaching seems equally obvious. The contention that internship-based programs provide a promising improvement for teacher education can be interpreted as an agreement for more behavior-oriented preprofessional educational experience. The challenge of theory's relationship to practice is met in part by making the study of the basis for behavior an integral part of the environment wherein the new teacher must act out the behaviors which comprise the teacher role.

Sources for Models

The student teacher or intern brings a model of teaching to his assigned classroom. This model is a composite of behavioral elements from many sources. If he were able to give a verbal description of his model (and he rarely is), he would express his *beginning model* as a series of statements in the form of "given . . . . . ., the teacher does . . . . . .," and "given . . . . . ., the the teacher must not do . . . ." Such a series of statements, if it were possible to commit them to paper, would constitute a prescriptive behavioral statement. It has not been established how much of teaching, as it is typically practiced today, can be reduced to a set of rational prescriptions; nor can it be demonstrated that teaching *ought* to be essentially a process of largely prescriptive behaviors. But those who are frustrated by the lack of definition and the slippery training problem associated with an *intuitive-behavior* concept of teaching are strongly disposed to postulate the validity of a rational decision-making model. Regardless, the beginning student teacher will do what he does because he thinks it is appropriate, and he will seek clues as to what else he ought to be doing. Those who work with student teachers note their tendency to copy and their inclination to follow any specific suggestions almost to the point of slavishness. What else can be expected? Their training up to this point has been largely generalizations. To assume that they will have already transformed into plans of action and behavior the principles and the methodological concepts of their prior course work is hardly realistic. At best, they come into student teaching or internship with a tentative model of teaching.

The sources of elements within this tentative (beginning) model are varied, more or less inappropriate, and often anachronistic. One major source, itself a discordant mixture from many sources, is the variety of teaching models which the new teacher has experienced during his fifteen or more years as a student. He has experienced the consequences of all sorts of teacher behaviors. Some of these have made lasting impressions, some he consciously emulates and others he consciously rejects. "The student teacher teaches as he was taught," it is said. Why? Because this has been the most potent source of elements for his beginning model.

His recollection of himself as a child and his childhood companions as pupils is another source of components in his beginning model of teaching. There is good reason to suspect that many of the elements which come from this source are faulty or anachronistic. Doubtless, recollection of the *pleasant* years of childhood or the *exciting* subjects in school is a factor in choosing the grade level or subject one intends to teach. Very likely it follows, thus, that the expectations about what it will be like to teach that subject or that level are a product of personal experience. To what extent these juvenile experiences were realistically perceived and to what extent the young adult is able to identify the salient factors is amusing to speculate. That these recollections do find their way into the body of expectations of role and behavior seem probable. Do they reflect the contemporary child? Do they account for the range of differences among youngsters of that age? Are they idealistic fantasies rather than accurate perceptions? Are they limited by social class or regional distinctions? Recollections of what it was like "when I was a kid" are a shaky basis upon which to build a model of teaching.

Another source is the study of teaching itself. During the courses in education the student's expectations of teaching, his expectations of children, and his self-understanding have been altered; he thinks about things in a new way; he learns things he did not know. These result in revisions in his model of teaching. He will behave somewhat differently in his beginning model. These changes can be credited to the prestudent-teaching portions of the teacher education curriculum.

The fourth of the major sources for the elements in the student teacher's beginning model is the environment of student teaching or internship. For sure, these elements are the last to enter the model but they are quickly assimilated before the student teacher has become steadily involved in the teaching duties. The tendency of many student teachers to emulate (sometimes ostensibly unwillingly) and to carry out what they think to be the activities and even the personal style of the supervising teacher is evidence of the dominance of this source of elements in many beginning models. It may be that the tendency to adopt the perceived style and methods of the supervising teacher springs from insecurity; perhaps the student teacher whose model is least well defined or whose expectations of himself in the teacher role are inadequately developed to a rational and cognitive level (the student teacher who doesn't have the foggiest idea what he's supposed to do) is the most apt to seek and rapidly integrate *any* clues about roles and behavior, regardless of the source.

Internship as Corrective Agent

Each of these four sources is defective and the composite beginning model is predictably inadequate. One of the most defensible arguments for the internship is its potentialities for correcting the defects in the beginning model and its contribution to the development of a more adequate model.

This first source of an internship model (personal experience as a student) needs to be inverted. Just as Bruner argues that a theory of teaching is not the other side of the coin from a theory of learning, it must be remembered that learning to teach does not derive from long experience as a pupil. In many respects these are contrast-counterpart roles. Internship provides the much-needed extended opportunity for role shift—from pupil to teacher. The second source (recollection of self and others as children) needs to be refocused upon a broad spectrum of today's youth seen through adult eyes. So long as this source remains more a product of recollection of childhood than a contact with children, it will be faulty in unpredictable ways. Internship's client-centered professional contact can readily correct this defective source of model elements. The third source (the study of teaching within preclinical courses) requires a different sort of correction, more on the order of reality-adjustment than of any reversal or inversion. Internship provides the place and the stimulus to learn about teaching as a process of testing in action the principles learned elsewhere. In a sense, the fourth source (the environment of the internship) is the only self-correcting source. Provided the intern moves beyond the initial (and very likely inadequate) cues about the behavioral demands of teaching, the early defects will be readily corrected. In this respect it is useful to think of the teacher as a data processor—receiving from the immediate environment information which is to be processed within the framework of the stored data about objectives, procedural intentions, content to be communicated, and so forth. It is reasonable to suggest that teaching the rudiments of this particular style is preferable to a teacher education which attempts to teach principles of learning and a methodology which students perceive as precepts.[1]

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[1] Ward, Ted W. "Professional Integration and Clinical Research." *The Supervisor: Agent for Change in Teaching.* (Edited by James Raths and Robert R. Leeper.) Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1966. pp. 57-84.

Clinical Sources of Teaching Models

The term *clinic* and the adjective *clinical* have a fairly wide assortment of meanings. *Clinic* is often used to denote the sort of relationship or environment in which a particular kind of professional activity is carried on. Although the term is most commonly associated with medical practice, it also has important uses in psychology and education. In essence, *clinical* refers to a problem-solving or decision-making arena in which a professional practitioner confronts his client or clients. In education, clinical activity is all that wherein the teacher (practitioner) deals directly with his pupils (clients). If left at such a general level of usage, the word lacks significance; without particular significance, a specialized word is weak jargon. Education needs the word *clinical* to denote that sort of confrontation between teacher and learner which encourages the teacher to test and improve the hypotheses upon which his practices are based.

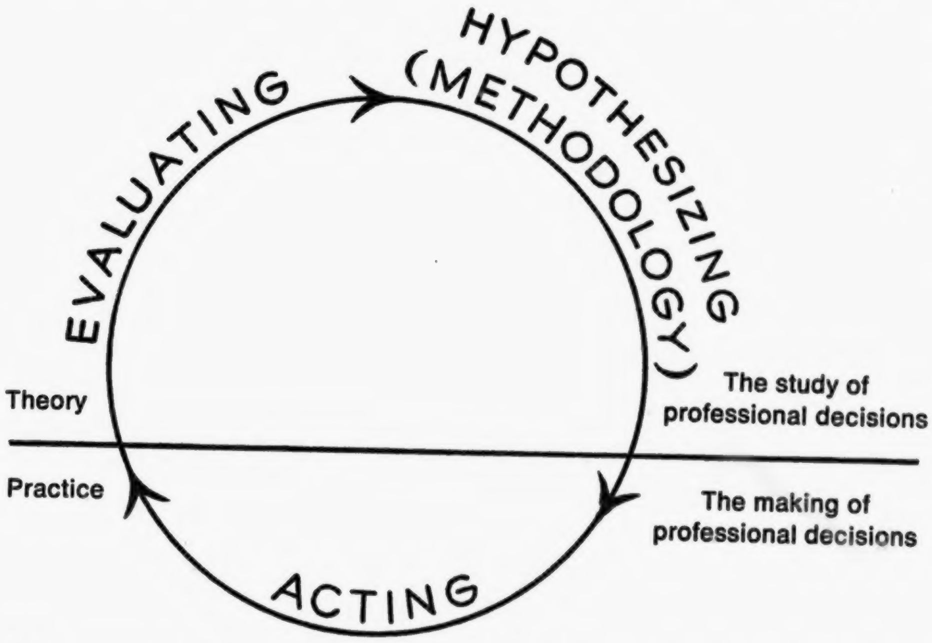
Many skills are learned by doing. There is a folk saying which expresses it: "Experience is the best teacher." Teachers learn by experience. In simplest terms, teachers learn what will and what won't work, they learn when to do what, and they learn how to watch for the cues which tell what impact their behavior is having upon pupils. Teaching models can be refined through the processes of such experiences. Perhaps all teaching models are affected to some extent by experience. But the teaching model which is designed to deliberately and effectively capitalize on the unfolding of experience is the model most apt to constructively integrate experience as substantial professional learning.

The internship can be an important clinical experience. As he begins, the intern is putting into practice a model of teaching which he has derived from his preinternship experiences and the initial internship contacts. He will be encouraged to sharpen his analytic and evaluative skills, aided by feedback from the consultant or supervisor. He can learn, during the internship, to adopt a cyclical stratagem within his teaching model. To the extent that his initial model is composed of rational elements, he can see himself as a decision-maker. He is perceiver and analyst; he makes prescriptive choices of action on the basis of his analyses. He carries out a treatment plan and he evaluates its consequences in action. Next is perhaps the most crucial part of the decision-making stratagem in the teaching model—taking the evaluation of the success of a given treatment plan into account in the strengthening or modifying of the hypothesis upon which the action was originally based.

A Clinical Cycle

Such a *clinical cycle* of procedures within the intern's learning experiences can be expressed as a three-segment circle of dynamic processes: hypothesizing, acting, and evaluating. Figure V pictures the cyclical procedure in which methodology is seen as a set of hypotheses which consistently regularize practice, practice leads to evaluation, and evaluation of the consequences of a practice leads to modifications in the hypotheses—either change or reinforcement.

Figure V
THE CLINICAL CYCLE:
THE RELATIONSHIP OF THEORY AND PRACTICE IN AN APPLIED SCIENCE


HYPOTHESIZING
(METHODOLOGY)
EVALUATING
Theory
The study of professional decisions
Practice
The making of professional decisions
ACTING

The process of hypothesizing and the residue of refined hypotheses—tested but always open to further test as times, children, and materials change—become virtually the methodology of teaching. Rather than a body of principles and specifications of action built thereon, the methodology or pedagogy is one of generating rational propositions and deriving plans of action (teaching procedures) which provide for their testing and subsequent refinement.

The *acting* phase of the cycle is the *doing* component, the behaving, hence the *practice* of the practitioner's role. But his role as a professional cannot be merely a *doing* or overt role. His role has a theoretical aspect which provides the basis for differentiating and making relevant the actions he selects according to the demands of the situation. So far, so good; most preclinical courses in teacher education are concerned with theoretical bases for taking action. But the linkage between the theoretical and the practical, between the hypothesizing and the acting, is too often left to the inadequate speculation and intuition of the new teacher. He may see no alternative to seeking an automatic transforming of precepts into actions. The cyclical process gives him an alternative: the heart of the process is the evaluative feedback which suggests the needed modification of the hypothesis structure. The lack of this modifying feedback makes for a rigid teacher and bruised learners. "If at first you don't succeed, try, try again" can be implemented by irrationally trying the same unsuccessful thing over and over. Or it can instead be a selective process of trying rationally to alter the tactical procedure to accommodate and circumvent the blocks which earlier tries revealed.

If ways can be found to help teachers base their teaching-behavior models upon a clinical cycle of refinement processes, important gains can be forecast: the teacher can be open to and yet critical of proposed change; the teacher can learn more (get more meaning) from experience; the teacher can communicate more ably about what he is doing since he is cognitively aware of the rational processes; and the task of teacher education can be more concentrated—concentrated upon the building of the clinical cycle itself so that systematic learning from experience will provide a basis for lifelong improvement.

INTERNSHIP AS HOPE

Professional education has difficulty finding a place in the curriculum for programmed instruction, in-basket tasks, simulators, and other high-efficiency training procedures. In spite of the substantial efforts by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) in recent years, even filmed episodes of classroom teaching experiences are only slowly being adopted for use in preservice professional courses. In contrast to fields of business, industrial, and professional training in which such innovations find ready acceptance, professional education is less precise. There is less common agreement about what behaviors are desired in the professional. Perhaps this is as it should be; perhaps education is, by nature, a field in which precisely defined behavioral objectives are unrealistic. Perhaps the essence of teaching is art and intuitive processes. Or maybe this is only a developmental stage in a longer evolutionary series of refinements; in some future day historians of education may look back with condescending amazement at our tolerance of ambiguities!

Speculation aside, in this age of technological innovation we should be very sure that we want teacher education to be bypassed. A stance of suspicious, unreasoned aloofness should not be allowed to determine the future. If we have evidence that teaching is of such a nature that its practitioners must be essentially intuitive artists of the culture, we must then pay a substantial price in the form of arduous and unmanageable training processes (if indeed it can be shown that such teaching skills can be taught at all). But we should not pay this price by default; and in the absence of such evidence, it is incumbent upon some of us to act upon the alternatives. Now is the time to mount huge efforts to build or derive behavioral definitions of teaching. Now is the time to research the previous assumptions—to find out what is general and what is special among the methods of teaching various subjects and levels, to find out through careful follow-up what demands are put upon our graduates and in which of these they fail to measure up, to listen more closely to what our students can tell us about the relevance and irrelevance of various aspects of their training, and to find ways to evaluate competence in teaching in terms of behavior change in pupils. In so doing, the field of education can become a behavioral-science discipline and a vast new world of more efficient and more potent educative experiences can be employed. Programmed instruction is only a small part of this new world, but it has focused educators' attention on the key problem: Without precise statements of objectives—in evaluable behavioral terms—effective programs cannot be constructed.

The contemporary era in American education, with its change-charged atmosphere and its spirit of aggressive innovation, has placed a premium on the teacher who is both adaptive and evaluative. The adaptive characteristic is demanded by the emerging instructional setting, slowly but surely shifting toward an integrated man-machine system with a variety of human roles. The evaluative characteristic is required as a protection against the proliferation of bandwagons which entice the schools into a succession of modish "experiments." That so many of these haphazard changes are not valid experiments is ample testimony to the lack of evaluation-oriented people in the profession at present.

Teacher education in the recent past emphasized the then current *how* of teaching without setting the stage for change to future *hows*. For so long teacher educators have fought a rearguard action against the sniping of those who maintain that teaching can't be taught or that it can't be taught by the professor of education that creative energy has been sapped and a virtually paranoid stance has resulted. Meanwhile, another generation of teachers has experienced a largely pedantic training program preoccupied with principles which treat the right and wrong of teaching procedures, the good and bad of curricular structures, and the academic debate of irrelevant issues. What can be done to shake loose from the traditions of a recent past in which we *had* to defend the status quo? Our students need to have the behavioral style of careful pioneers; they face a lifetime of change.

If we contend that teaching can be taught, we are likely also to contend that teaching, as it is now practiced in the schools, can be improved. In a day of rapid changes and societal realignments, it is a credit to the teaching profession that there is this concern about improvement. There are three possible approaches to procedural improvement—to do less of whatever is ineffective, to do more of that which is effective, and to add that which is needed but lacking.

The primary problem is identification of the strengths and weaknesses in the present operation. Next must come an analysis to identify the gaps and propose ways to fill them. With these data in hand, all three approaches are possible—reducing, emphasizing, and adding. Internship has arisen, in part, from such analyses. Many colleges and universities have attempted to sort out the strengths and weaknesses in teacher education. Practical and realistic experiences under expert practitioner supervision, cooperative participation with elementary and secondary schools, applications of theoretical concepts to the study of actual problems in practice—these strengths are commonly recognized. Abstract study of principles, isolation from the elementary and secondary school environments, professional unawareness of the contemporary characteristics of youth and their schools—these weaknesses are still with us. Thus grows the impetus for internship-based teacher education, a remarkable expression of the desire to improve teaching by improving teacher education.

Part Two
INTERNSHIP FEEDBACK

CHAPTER XII

Internship Survey-1967

> Internship programs operating within America's colleges and universities bear remarkable resemblance to winter's snowflakes. All possess some degree of similarity, yet each one tends to be just a little different. . . .

The Commission on Internships in Teacher Education of the Association for Student Teaching conducted a survey to determine the nature and extent of internship programs in colleges, universities, and cooperating schools in the United States. In order to make the survey as accurate as possible, questionnaires were mailed to 733 teacher education institutions listing membership in the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Fifty-one respondents stated that they offer internship programs which meet, or nearly meet, the Committee's definition of internship as presented in this volume (p. xi). In certain instances, not all questions were answered; consequently, responses do not always total fifty-one. On other items, multiple responses were given. The questionnaire inquiries and replies as reported by the participating institutions are given below.

A. THE INSTITUTION AND THE INTERN

1. How is your institution classified?

State university	20	State college	12
City university	0	City college	1
Private university	11	Private college	7
		Total	51

2. Approximately how many students are currently enrolled in your internship program(s)?

Undergraduate		*Graduate*	
17 elementary programs	712	20 elementary programs	347
18 secondary programs	503	28 secondary programs	1,195
Total	1,215	2 college programs	9
		Total	1,551

3. Do you consider your current enrollment as typical of other years?

   Yes—27 No—21

   If not, why not?

   New programs, enrollments are increasing

4. How many years has the internship program been offered in your institution?

   3 years (median)

5. Approximately how many interns have you graduated?

   99 (average) 5,057 (total)

6. In which grade level does your institution provide internship teaching experience?

Level	*Institutions*
Primary (grades 1-3)	30
Elementary (grades 4-6)	35
Junior High (grades 7-8; 7-9)	37
High (grades 9-12; 10-12)	37
College Level	2

7. In which subject matter areas of the secondary school does your institution provide internship experiences?

Subject Matter Areas	*Institutions*
English	36
Social Studies	34
History	29
Biological Science	29
General Science	27
Modern Language	26
Mathematics	25
Physical Science	25
Earth Science	18
Music	16
Geography	15
Fine Arts	14
Speech and Drama	14
Physical Education (men)	12
Business Education	11
Classical Language	9
Physical Education (women)	9
Special Education	9
Industrial Arts	9
Civics	9
Economics	8
Core Curriculum	6
Distributive Education	5
Counseling and Guidance	4
Agriculture	2
Consumer Education	1
Art	1
Driver Education	0

8. Do you consider your internship program basically a four-year or a fifth-year program?

   Four-year—14 Fifth-year—34

9. When are students admitted into the internship program? (Check all applicable answers.)

Time Description	*Institutions*
After having earned a bachelor's degree	39
After the completion of sequence of education courses	18
After the completion of a given number of hours in major field	17
At a given semester without regard to courses completed	5
Other: *degree plus experience, after preclinical experience,* etc.	6

10. Which of the following practices are considered or employed as part of the regular admissions policy in the internship program? (Check all applicable answers.)

Practices	*Institutions*
Judgment of member(s) of the faculty	39
Judgment of director of intern program	38
Scholastic rank in major teaching field	38
Character	36
Scholastic rank in education courses	25
Social maturity	24
Personal appearance	23
Success in previous experience with children	23
Physical examination	20
Test of speaking ability	14
Success in student teaching	14
Score on personality test (i.e., MMPI)	7
Score on teaching aptitude test	5
Age of applicant	4
Other: *possession of provisional or emergency certificate, selection by district, inner-city school interest, graduate school grade point average, etc.*	13

11. Is a minimum academic rating required for admission into the internship program?

Yes–48 No–2

If "Yes," indicate the minimum grade point average required.

Grade Point	*Frequency of Mention*
3.00 (B)	14
2.75	14
2.50	18
2.30	5
2.00 (C)	7

12. Is the completion of a student teaching assignment a prerequisite for admission to the internship program?

Yes–12 No–39

13. In what year does the prospective intern generally begin his professional education course work?

Year	*Institutions*
Freshman	4
Sophomore	8
Junior	14
Senior	3
Graduate	26

14. Is there a written agreement between the teacher education institution and the cooperating school(s)?

Yes—27 No—20

15. Is the intern paid a salary or stipend by the local school system during his internship teaching?

Yes—47 No—2

If "Yes," indicate percent of certified beginning teacher's salary.

Percent	*Institutions*
Less than 25	5
25	5
50	7
75	10
100	17

(NOTE: Intern salaries ranged from $1200 to $6220 with median salary of $3500.)

16. Is any portion of the intern's salary paid by his college or university?

Yes—2 No—49

17. How many semesters of internship training does the candidate generally receive?

Number	*Institutions*
1 semester	22
2 semesters	26
3 semesters	0
4 semesters	3

18. Does the student teacher receive college credit for his internship teaching?

Yes—48 No—3

If "Yes," how many semester hours may he earn?

From six to eight semester hours (average)

19. Is the student permitted to carry any academic course work during his student internship teaching?

Yes—34 No—14

20. Does the candidate receive a master's degree or a teaching certificate at the conclusion of his internship program?

Degree/Certificate	*Institutions*
Master's degree	27
Teaching certificate	39

21. Approximately what percent of your graduates from the internship program go directly into the teaching profession?

Percent	*Institutions*
Less than 50	0
50	2
60	3
75	2
90	10
More than 90	37
New program	4

B. SUPERVISOR (COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY)

1. What percent of the college or university supervisors held each of the following as a highest degree?

BACHELOR'S DEGREE

Percent	*Institutions*
33⅓	1
100	1

MASTER'S DEGREE

10	2
20	3
25	1
30	4
33⅓	3
40	2
50	9
60	1
80	9
90	1
100	7

EDUCATION SPECIALIST'S DEGREE

10	2
20	1
30	1
33⅓	1

DOCTOR'S DEGREE

Percent	*Institutions*
10	1
20	4
30	2
33⅓	3
40	2
50	7
60	1
70	2
75	1
80	2
100	9

2. Are the college or university supervisors full-time in supervision or do they also teach other courses?

Full-time—17 Part-time—36

3. What is the number of interns for whom each supervisor is responsible?

Number	*Institutions*
1 intern	2
2 interns	3
3 interns	2
4 interns	9
5 interns	4
6 interns	4
7 interns	2
8 interns	4
9 interns	0
10 or more interns	12

4. What is the average number of visitations made by the supervisor to each intern each semester?

Visitations	*Institutions*
1-5	16
6-10	14
11-15	4
16-20	7
More than 20	4

C. COOPERATING TEACHER, INTERN CONSULTANT, INTERN SUPERVISOR (SCHOOL SYSTEM)

1. By whom are the salaries of intern supervisors paid?

SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Percent	*Institutions*
25	1
50	4
70	1
90	1
100	19

College or University

Percent	Institutions
30	1
50	3
75	1
85	1
100	11

2. Does the intern supervisor receive a mileage allowance?

Yes–20	No–15

3. Does the intern supervisor receive a tuition allowance?

Yes–10	No–28

4. Does the cooperating school district receive any tuition allowances?

Yes–10	No–28

5. Does the cooperating school district receive any money from the college or university in reimbursement of salaries?

Yes–4	No–34

6. For how many intern teachers is each intern supervisor responsible?

Number	Institutions
1-3	18
4-6	22
7-10	5
Other - 12, 13, 15, 26	1 each

7. Does the intern supervisor generally have his teaching load reduced when he is supervising interns?

Yes–29	No–11

8. What is a typical pattern of supervision for the intern supervisor?

Pattern	Institutions
No teaching load, supervises six interns	21
One-half teaching load, supervises three interns	8
Full teaching load, supervises one intern	13

9. Do intern supervisors evaluate intern teacher performance for certification approval?

Yes–27	No–14

10. Do intern supervisors utilize regular self-evaluation procedures?

Yes–29	No–10

11. What is the average tenure of intern supervisors?

Years	Institutions
1 year	5
2 years	4
3 years	5
4 years	2
5 years	5
6-10 years	12

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

A review of the responses received from colleges and universities engaged in internship programs suggests that the following findings may be particularly relevant:

1. Fifty-one institutions were operating internship programs which conformed generally to the definition of internships developed by the Commission on Internships in Teacher Education of the Association for Student Teaching (see p. xi).
2. A majority of the internship programs (a) were found in state-supported institutions, (b) had been in operation for a period of three years, and (c) were postbaccalaureate or fifth-year programs.
3. Criteria for admission to the internship program, in order of frequency of mention, were (a) judgment of faculty members or intern program directors, (b) scholastic rank in major teaching field, and (c) character.
4. Thirty-seven of forty-four respondents claimed that at least 90 percent of their internship graduates went directly into the teaching profession.
5. In order of frequency, secondary interns were found teaching in English, social studies, and the general area of science.
6. At the undergraduate level, the greater number of interns were preparing for elementary teaching, while graduate level internship programs tended to attract candidates interested in teaching at the secondary level.
7. The grade point average most frequently indicated as prerequisite for entrance into the internship program was 2.5 (C+).
8. Less than one-fourth of the responding institutions considered success in student teaching as a criterion for admission to the internship program.
9. The stipend for internship involvement ranged from $1200 to $6220, with an average of $3500 for the school year.
10. Most interns received at least 75 percent of the salary of a beginning teacher in their community. In 96 percent of the cases the intern's salary was paid by the local school system.
11. The length of the internship involvement varied, with slightly more than one-half of the interns (51 percent) teaching for two semesters.
12. Seventy-one percent of the responding institutions permitted the student to carry additional academic course work during his internship tenure. The practice of granting college credit for internship teaching was nearly universal (94 percent).
13. A plurality of college supervisors had responsibilities for ten or more interns and visited each an average of from one to five times each semester.

INSTITUTIONS REPLYING TO INTERNSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Key

Type of Program:

U=Undergraduate G=Graduate E=Elementary S=Secondary

Length of Internship:

1=1 semester 2=2 semesters 3=3 semesters 4=4 semesters

I. Institutions Reporting Some Type of Internship Program

G (E) 1	1.	Bank Street College of Education New York, New York
G (E) 4	2.	Buffalo State University of New York College at Buffalo Buffalo, New York
G (E) 2	3.	California State College Los Angeles, California
G (S) 2	4.	University of California Berkeley, California
G (E,S) 2	5.	University of California, Davis Davis, California
G (S) 2	6.	Canisius College Buffalo, New York
U (E) G (E) 2	7.	Central Washington State College Ellensburg, Washington
G (S) 1	8.	Clark University Worcester, Massachusetts
G (S) 2	9.	University of Chicago Chicago, Illinois
U (E,S) 2	10.	Colorado State College Greeley, Colorado
G (E,S) 1	11.	Cornell University Ithaca, New York
U (S) 1	12.	University of Dayton Dayton, Ohio
G (S) 2	13.	Duke University Durham, North Carolina
U (E) 2	14.	Eastern Montana College Billings, Montana
U (E,S)	15.	Georgian Court College Lakewood, New Jersey
U (E) 1	16.	George Washington University Washington, D.C.
G (E,S)	17.	Harvard Graduate School of Education Cambridge, Massachusetts
G (E) 1	18.	Idaho State University Pocatello, Idaho
G (E) 1	19.	Indiana State University Terre Haute, Indiana
G (E,S) 2	20.	Jersey City State College Jersey City, New Jersey
U (E,S) 2	21.	Marshall University Huntington, West Virginia
G (S) 2	22.	Memphis State University Memphis, Tennessee
U (E)	23.	Michigan State University East Lansing, Michigan
U (E,S) 1	24.	New Mexico State University Las Cruces, New Mexico
G (S)	25.	New York University New York, New York
G (E,S) 2	26.	College of Notre Dame Belmont, California
G (E,S) 2	27.	Northwestern University Evanston, Illinois
U (E,S) 2	28.	Oregon College of Education Monmouth, Oregon
G (E,S) 2	29.	University of Oregon Eugene, Oregon
G (S) 2	30.	University of Pennsylvania Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
G (E,S) 2	31.	Pepperdine College Los Angeles, California
U (S) 1	32.	Rice University Houston, Texas

G (E) 2	33.	St. Cloud State College St. Cloud, Minnesota
U (E,S) 2	34.	San Jose State College San Jose, California
U (E,S) G (E,S)	35.	South Carolina State College Orangeburg, South Carolina
U (E,S) 2	36.	Southern Oregon College Ashland, Oregon
G (S) U (S) 1	37.	Stout State University Menomonie, Wisconsin
G (S) 4	38.	Temple University Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
U (E,S) G (E,S) 2	39.	Towson State College Towson, Maryland
U (E,S) G (E,S) 1	40.	Trenton State College Trenton, New Jersey
G (S) 2	41.	University of Virginia Charlottesville, Virginia
U (E,S) G (S) 1	42.	Wisconsin State University Eau Claire, Wisconsin
U (E,S) G (E,S) 1	43.	University of Wisconsin Madison, Wisconsin
G (E,S) 2	44.	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Milwaukee, Wisconsin
U (E,S) 1	45.	Wisconsin State University Oshkosh, Wisconsin
U (E,S) 1	46.	Wisconsin State University Platteville, Wisconsin
U (E,S) 1	47.	Wisconsin State University Stevens Point, Wisconsin
U (S) G (S) 1	48.	Wisconsin State University Superior, Wisconsin
U (E,S) 1	49.	Wisconsin State University Whitewater, Wisconsin
G (S) 1	50.	Assumption College Worcester, Massachusetts
G (S) 1	51.	State University of New York Albany, New York

CHAPTER XIII

Summary of Representative Internship Programs

A survey of existing intern programs reveals a great diversity of practices and goals. Many programs can be completed in an undergraduate four-year period; others are not completed until one or two years after the bachelor's degree is received. Although there seems to be no emerging trend in internships at the present time, all of the programs described below seem to possess the following dimensions which have been recognized by the Commission on Internships of the Association for Student Teaching as basic to an intern program:

1. The internship is an integral part of the professional preparation of teachers.
2. The internship is the culminating professional laboratory experience.
3. The internship is preceded by appropriate laboratory experiences and foundational course work.
4. The internship is planned and coordinated by the teacher education institution in cooperation with the participating schools.
5. The internship stresses professional development through intensive supervision and seminars which parallel the actual experience.
6. A stated amount of pay is given for the intern's services.
7. The intern is contracted by the local school district.
8. The intern is assigned a designated number of classes or students to teach.

The programs described below represent the various types of programs that exist at the present time. They were selected because they seem to be illustrative of current intern practices. All were visited by the author in the fall of 1966. The summaries, which are necessarily brief, attempt to include the following:

1. A general description of the program, including the objectives
2. A statement of the strengths and advantages of the program
3. A statement of the problems or difficulties that seem to exist.

The differences among the various programs prevent categorization. Therefore, they will be presented alphabetically.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY

The graduate intern program at Berkeley is designed to prepare secondary school teachers.[1] Candidates for this program must have at least a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate average of B+ or better. Both the University and a school district screen and select applicants. Final acceptance in the program is contingent upon employment by a school district.

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[1] A program also exists for junior college teachers.

Completion of the program requires one summer and one academic year. During the summer the student works in one of three designated schools where he obtains his preinternship teaching preparation. Here he observes, participates, and teaches under the supervision of master teachers and the program staff. Concurrent daily seminars related to the intern's teaching experiences are held in the afternoons in the school where the student participates.

During the entire school year the student participates in a paid internship. The intern is a full-time teacher and is completely responsible for the classes he teaches and for extraclass assignments which may be given him. He is on the regular salary schedule of the district and is paid in the same way as other teachers.

Supervision is provided jointly by the university staff and the school district, although primary responsibility rests with the University. During the internship, the intern is enrolled in Saturday seminars conducted by the program staff. These seminars are centered on problems encountered in teaching and on professional content designed to increase teaching competence.

The university staff feels that the immediate contact with students is a valuable experience for the intern. Course content, then, becomes much more meaningful. This program also affords the opportunity for students to enter the profession more quickly. It is limited, however, in the number of students it can accommodate, both the number it can place and the number who can meet the entrance requirements.

The university staff also recognizes that additional supervision from the public schools would improve the program.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, DAVIS

The graduate intern programs at Davis are available for both elementary and secondary education students. The objective of the programs at Davis is to select potentially successful teachers and to prepare them for public school teaching. College graduates who are considered above average candidates for teaching are selected and are given the opportunity to elect an internship instead of student teaching to complete certification requirements. The programs for elementary and secondary school teachers differ in some respects.

Secondary School Internship Program

The secondary school program requires two summers and an intervening school year for completion. During the summer, the graduate student teaches half-days for six weeks in a school close to the campus. The afternoons are spent in seminars. It is suggested that certain methods courses be taken as an undergraduate, if possible.

During the school year, the candidate participates as a paid intern. He works full time at full salary and is completely responsible for the classes he teaches. A weekly seminar provides opportunity for further work in curriculum and instruction. During the second summer, the intern completes the course work required for the California Standard Teaching Credential with Specialization in Secondary Teaching.

The responsibility for supervision is assumed by the University. The cooperating school provides supervision equal in amount to that given to any beginning teacher. The university supervisor has a normal load of fifteen interns and attempts to see each one about every ten days. The supervision is done by staff members who have a background in the intern's major subject. A weekly seminar is held on campus and focuses on the problems confronting the intern.

Elementary School Internship Program

The Davis design for the preparation of elementary school teachers provides a variety of options in order to meet individual needs of credential candidates. It allows the prospective teacher to enter the teacher education program at the beginning of any quarter after graduation from an undergraduate program. Upon successful completion of thirty-six quarter units of graduate work in both professional and academic fields, the graduate of the Davis program qualifies for the California Standard Teaching Credential with Specialization in Elementary Teaching.

The candidate must have a bachelor's degree with a legally acceptable major and must qualify for admission to the Graduate Division. Usually the student will also have taken either or both of the required courses in educational psychology and educational sociology as an undergraduate.

The first graduate quarter for all credential candidates consists of half-day classroom experiences which include three weeks of intensive daily observation in various settings in a public school and seven weeks of daily participation in the classrooms of highly qualified, experienced resident teachers. This represents the core of the initial professional experience and is augmented on campus by a seminar and by professional course work in various basic curriculum areas of the elementary school. The student is visited regularly in the school by the university supervisor.

If the candidate is committed to teaching, clear as to professional objectives, and, in the opinion of the university staff, ready as assume major classroom responsibility, he may become an intern applicant. Otherwise, he proceeds through a student-teaching option.

The intern candidate becomes an intern at the beginning of his second graduate quarter provided he secures public school employment. The internship extends for a period of one academic year. While interning, the student will receive full teaching salary, will have regular responsibility as an elementary teacher, and will be supervised by university staff members as well as by the school district. The internship is accompanied by seminars on campus and other professional course work. The intern teaches under a special internship credential, and, when he has met all the remaining requirements of the program, he is recommended for the Standard Teaching Credential.

Advantages and Problems

The intern experiences at Davis afford students the opportunity for concurrent implementation of theory and practice. They allow capable candidates to move more quickly into direct teaching. The graduate is more experienced at the end of the internship and usually is employed before student-teacher graduates are placed. The year-long experience allows the opportunity to explore in depth many aspects of teaching. The intern experience is more demanding than student teaching and the interns are highly motivated by the challenge.

Programs of this type are designed for the better student. There is some feeling on campus, though, that weaker students could be accommodated, especially if the same supervisory pattern could continue. The intensity of college supervision makes a program of this type more expensive to operate.

CENTRAL MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

The teacher intern program at Central Michigan University is an undergraduate program for elementary and secondary education majors which provides for two full semesters of teaching experience in selected school systems. It is available to all students seeking a bachelor's degree and a certificate to teach in Michigan.

During the student's first two college years his program of studies is about the same whether he is following the intern program or the usual pattern. In each of the last two years, however, the student on the intern plan spends one semester as a full-time, paid employee of one of the cooperating school systems.

During the junior year internship, the student is known as a teacher assistant and is paid at the rate of 50 percent of the pay of a fully certified beginning teacher in the employing district. In addition, he receives seven semester hours of credit from the University. The duties of the teacher assistant are carefully defined in writing by the employing district and approved by the Student Teaching and Intern Office on campus. The cooperating school and the college coordinator are responsible for seeing that each teacher assistant, in addition to performing the tasks described by the district, has satisfactory experiences as a student teacher. Half of the teacher assistants each year are assigned in the fall and the other half in the spring. Fall semester teacher assistants must take their required education work in the summer session preceding their junior year, but spring semester teacher assistants may take the required courses in the previous summer or in the fall semester.

The title, teacher associate, is given to senior-year interns who perform the duties of a teacher in the employing school district. The teacher associate is paid at the rate of 75 percent of the pay of a fully certified beginning teacher and also receives four semester hours of credit in directed teaching. The teaching responsibilities of the intern at this level are carefully described by the employing district and approved by the Student Teaching and Intern Office. The teacher associate, with the help of his coordinator, plans and conducts his classes. He must evaluate his pupils' progress, take stock of his own capabilities, attend faculty meetings, and participate in other teaching or school-level activities. Half of the teacher associates in any year will be assigned in the fall semester and half in the spring.

The immediate supervisor of a teacher associate is an associate coordinator who works full time with six or seven teacher associates. His basic responsibility is to assist the interns in completing their orientation to and induction into the teaching profession. The associate coordinator is employed by the school district and is responsible to the administration of that district and to the University through its Student Teaching and Intern Office.

The Central Michigan program enables the student to become aware of the nature of teaching early in his academic life and to receive pay during the experience. The internship causes the student to reflect on his own needs as well as the nature of teaching. It provides contact with two different school systems, thus making possible a wider evaluation of competency. Teacher interns are given a degree of responsibility not often experienced by student teachers. The program does require more than the normal four academic years to complete—usually one or two summer sessions or an extra semester. This program is a revision of an earlier program which had three semesters of experience and required five years of work and study.

COLORADO STATE COLLEGE

The undergraduate internship program at Colorado State College was developed in cooperation with the Greeley Public Schools in order to help the district in handling a larger enrollment and to increase the preservice teaching experience beyond that usually provided by student teaching. The intern program, which can be completed in four years, provides time for students to take courses relevant to their preservice experience concurrently with the experience. It is also designed to attract better teachers into supervision with an added incentive of pay from the district and to provide more individual help for students through team teaching.

The Colorado State program is undergraduate and open to both elementary and secondary education students; however, the majority of the interns are prospective elementary teachers. The program is a substitute for student teaching, and eighteen quarter hours of credit are given by the College. In order to qualify for the program, the candidate must have a grade point average of 2.5 or better on a four-point scale.

The intern, a college senior, is employed by the Greeley Public School District to work half-days for the school year at a salary of $500. The other half-day is spent on campus completing required course work for the bachelor's degree.

The intern is usually assigned to work with a supervisor in a class which is larger than a regular class. Each supervisor works with two interns so that he may have teaching help both in the morning and in the afternoon. The intern works jointly with the teacher and performs all the normal tasks of teaching. Team teaching and small-group classes constitute his major type of teaching activity. Planning is a joint process between the supervisor and the intern. The intern devotes a much greater amount of time to teaching than a regular student teacher in the Colorado State College program.

The classroom teacher in the public school serves as the supervisor of interns. Care is taken to try to match personalities since the supervisor and intern work closely together for a long period of time. The intern supervisor is usually in the room with the intern, although some schools are equipped so that individual rooms are available for small-group instruction. The intern coordinator at Colorado State visits each intern every week or two. He also conducts a one-hour seminar for the interns one day a week.

The participants display a great amount of enthusiasm for the program. The interns feel the program is worth the extra work in order to get the extra experience. The teachers and school administrators state that interns make a valuable addition to the school. The team-teaching arrangement affords opportunities for joint planning which seem to be helpful to both intern and supervisor. The program also reduces the pupil-teacher ratio, thus providing individual help for more students. The interns feel that the concurrent courses are beneficial to them as they can relate the ideas to a specific teaching situation. The consensus of school administrators and the college intern director is that the interns display more confidence at the beginning of the first year of teaching than the usual beginning teacher.

The participants also recognize that there are some areas which could be improved to make the programs more effective. The supervisors feel that more could be accomplished if classes were of normal size instead of being overloaded. Occasionally there is some problem in integrating an intern into a team arrangement, more so at the secondary than at the elementary level. This program is limited to the stronger teaching prospect and possibly may be too demanding for many candidates. Sometimes there is difficulty in scheduling classes so that an intern may be released for a morning or an afternoon. There is no particular training period for the intern supervisor to acquaint him with the nature of the program and of the supervision expected.

DOMINICAN COLLEGE OF SAN RAFAEL

The elementary intern program at Dominican College, San Rafael, California, is designed to attract high-ability candidates into the profession.

One postgraduate year is required for the completion of internship and the standard elementary credential.

For the first five weeks of the first semester, students are assigned to student teaching in the public schools. The student teaching is done, if possible, in the district which will employ the intern candidate and at the grade level at which the intern intends to teach. Students are visited regularly by college supervisors and participate in seminars with other student teachers. At the end of this period, the intern candidates return to campus for an integrated block of professional curriculum and methods courses.

The second, and final, assignment occurs during the second semester, when the candidates are employed as interns and teach full time at beginner's pay. Six semester units of credit are given for the intern experience. The intern is asked to remain in the school system where he interns for at least one year after completing the internship.

Patterns of supervision differ in the cooperating schools. Generally supervision is a joint responsibility, with the College assuming most of it. One school district employs a full-time supervisor of interns who works with all interns in the district. The college supervisor visits once a week and also conducts an intern seminar every other week.

The program is limited to high-ability students and seems to attract more mature college graduates (average age, 28). A program of this type allows strong prospects to get into teaching in less than the usual time. The cooperating schools feel that the carefully selected intern is a better teaching candidate than the average preservice student. Motivation to succeed is high. The internship provides on-the-job training linking theory and practice. In addition, supervision for the intern year is more generous than that which is usually available to beginning teachers. Internship has proved to be an excellent recruiting device, attracting mature, highly qualified individuals to teaching.

This program, like several in California, is designed primarily for the stronger teacher candidate and is a more demanding means of entering the profession than the regular program. However, the program organization is such that it appears it could be extended to include more candidates. It provides an introductory course, a brief student teaching experience, integrated course work after some contact with teaching, and a subsequent teaching experience under supervision of public school and college personnel.

INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

The secondary intern program at Indiana State University is part of the Teacher Corps program for the culturally disadvantaged. It requires two calendar years to complete and the candidate receives a master's degree at its termination. College graduates who indicate a desire to work with culturally disadvantaged students are selected. They may have been either teacher education or liberal arts majors as undergraduates.

The program begins with a summer session which includes instruction in the sociology and psychology of the disadvantaged. The student participates in microteaching experiences and completes a course in the analysis of teaching behavior. Each candidate spends time working with disadvantaged children in boys clubs, girls clubs, and other community agencies. Field trips are taken to disadvantaged areas in other cities.

The intern contracts to teach for two years in a culturally disadvantaged school. He teaches for a half-day and spends the other half-day working in community projects and pursuing course work toward the master's degree. The intern does not replace a teacher but provides enriched learning experiences for the disadvantaged. A concurrent course, Internship in Teaching, is conducted each semester by a university professor and focuses on professional information related to concurrent experience. The first semester focuses on the teaching situation (discipline, accepting pupils, development of minimum skills, day-to-day planning, and classroom management). During the second semester, the seminar is concerned with the school and community and stresses the realities of the teaching situation (understanding pupils in their environment, relating subject matter to real-life situations, concept of the school as home, and others). The third semester of the seminar, during the second year of the internship, stresses teaching and learning and deals with broader aspects of the situation (how to bring about behavioral change, reinforcement of learning, measurement and evaluation, operational philosophy, and others). The final semester is concerned with operational concepts for continued growth (raising the level of pupils' aspirations, conscious attention to the thinking process, development of long-term objectives, development of individual style in teaching, and others).

The second summer is spent on campus completing additional course work. The intern is in the school during the second year, again teaching for half of each day and working in community endeavors the other half while completing course work toward the master's degree. The Internship in Teaching seminar continues in the second year, as indicated above. The intern receives a salary equal to that of a teacher in the school system where he is employed.

The intern is supervised by a team leader who is on the public school staff. The team leader has full-time responsibility for supervision of from four to five interns and works closely with them in organizing schedules, analyzing teaching progress, and setting up the community program. The team leader also coordinates the program with the University and works closely with the project director there. The Teacher Corps project director is responsible for the program, and he and his staff maintain close contact with the program in the field while coordinating the campus study.

The program is designed to help solve one educational problem—the education of the culturally disadvantaged. It attracts only interns interested in that area and operates only in schools in disadvantaged areas. Observers feel that the program provides latitude for creativity on the part of the interns and that these interns are more likely to experiment with innovative procedures than are student teachers. The two-year, carefully supervised program provides opportunities for the interns to become more skilled in basic teaching techniques and to gain a better understanding of the behavior of youth.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

The elementary intern program at Michigan State University began in 1959 in an attempt to help students from community colleges meet certification requirements. It has since expanded into an important part of the total Michigan State program, although the vast majority of Michigan State students still receive certification by the traditional student teaching procedure. The program can be completed in four academic years plus the two summers following the sophomore and junior years. At the completion of the intern program, the student qualifies for both the bachelor's degree and the teaching certificate. Ten quarter hours of credit are earned in the internship.

The first two years of general education are completed either on the East Lansing campus or in one of the cooperating junior colleges. The student attends a ten-week summer session at Michigan State following the sophomore year, his studies being mostly in the arts and sciences. During the third calendar year, the student is off campus in an internship center for two quarters where he takes work in professional education and completes student teaching. The final quarter and the summer session are spent on the East Lansing campus pursuing course work in the liberal arts areas.

The candidate receives a contract as an intern during the fourth calendar year at a salary of approximately $3500. He has full responsibility for a classroom and assumes the same duties as a first-year teacher. He and the other interns in the area meet one evening a week for a class at the intern center. This session is conducted by the university resident coordinator or one or the resident staff members who work at the center.

The major responsibility for supervision rests with intern consultants—full-time supervisors employed by the cooperating school district. The consultants spend time with the interns in observation, planning, demonstration teaching, and conferences. Each consultant supervises five interns for the entire school year and has no other classroom responsibilities. Occasional visits are made by the resident coordinator and his assistants. The coordinator also conducts frequent in-service training sessions for the intern consultants.

The Michigan State program is growing and now operates in eight regional centers. Introduction into teaching is considered to be easier in the intern process than in the traditional program. Statistics indicate that a much larger number of intern graduates remain in teaching than graduates of the regular student teaching program at Michigan State.

Some of the interns feel that they are somewhat isolated from the campus by spending so much time in the centers. Some of them also consider the extra course work taken during the internship year to be somewhat burdensome at times. In spite of this, the enthusiasm for the program is apparent and appreciation is expressed for the quality of supervision given.

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

The fifth-year graduate internship for elementary and secondary teachers at the University of Oregon is an attempt to improve the teacher education sequence through extended teaching experiences. The stated purposes of the program are as follows:

1. To bring educational theory and classroom practice into a closer functional relationship
2. To provide for the development of professional skill through sustained practice under the guidance and supervision of competent public school and university supervisors
3. To make the transition into teaching smoother and more effective
4. To provide opportunity for the student to acquire more depth in general education and in his specialization area.

The program requires one full year of internship teaching and two summers of course work. Students entering the program without a background in professional education are required to take professional course work during their first and second summers and must complete their academic work during a third summer. Those who have had no student teaching before the intern year may complete it during the summer. Others may have completed the regular program of student teaching as undergraduates.

Interns spend the week prior to summer school in the schools in which they will be teaching in the fall. During this week they become acquainted with personnel, materials, responsibilities, and locations. Thus, the students go into their classes in the summer session with a fairly thorough knowledge of what will be expected of them in the fall. Summer work can be geared toward the actual situation in which interns will find themselves.

During the intern year the intern is a full-time teacher in a school system and receives two-thirds of a beginning teacher's salary. The secondary education students teach one period less than a full load, but the elementary education interns teach for the full school day. In addition to teaching, the interns are required to participate in one seminar each term. The seminars are held once a week, on Monday evening. The elementary education interns meet together in one seminar group and the secondary education interns meet in subject-matter groups. Twenty quarter hours of credit are given for the internship and the seminars. A postinternship workshop is held for the interns at the conclusion of the school year. In addition, periodic planning sessions are held with the administrators in the public schools which cooperate in the program.

Supervision is a joint responsibility of the University and the cooperating school. At the secondary school level, a supervisor is released one period for supervision of each intern assigned to him. In the elementary school, an intern supervisor is released full time for supervision of three interns. University supervisors visit approximately every two weeks. A full load for a university supervisor is fifteen interns. Six seminar sessions are conducted each year for the public school personnel, and techniques and problems of supervision are discussed. A clinical professor is appointed jointly by the University and the school board of the cooperating school. He is responsible for the coordination of the program and the development of an in-service program for the intern supervisors.

Although the University intends to keep the program small, positive results are indicated. Course work becomes meaningful to the intern. Men have been attracted to the program at the elementary level. Former interns are employed more quickly than their counterparts who completed the traditional student teaching program. Interns seem to be able to evaluate themselves better and to pick up ideas more quickly.

Some problems emerge. With the current demand for teachers, recruitment is a problem. An arrangement is needed so that an elementary intern does not have to have a full contingent of students for the entire day. Some intern supervisors do not effectively supervise and tend to use released time for other purposes. Schools tend to keep the good interns, so the University frequently has to search for new openings for interns.

OREGON COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

In order to provide extended realistic experiences, the Oregon College of Education devised a fifth-year program of teacher education for elementary and secondary teacher candidates who desire to enter the profession through an internship. Intern participation is based on completion of the regular baccalaureate teacher education program at Oregon College of Education with the exception of the student teaching experience. The student substitutes other course work for student teaching during the senior year and appropriate courses may be reserved for graduate credit. The student receives a bachelor's degree upon completion of the required number of hours and other college requirements. He is not recommended for a teaching certificate until satisfactory completion of the internship program.

During the junior or senior year the student indicates a desire to enter the internship program and defers his student teaching. The potential intern is screened in the same manner as a student teaching candidate. When he is selected for the internship, the balance of his five-year program of teacher education is planned in cooperation with the school district and the College. The intern's spring term includes plans for orientation to the school district and to the teaching assignment for the subsequent year. During the summer session, the secondary education intern will participate in a two-week workshop.

The intern is employed by a school to teach approximately two-thirds of a load at two-thirds of full salary for the school year. During this period he participates in an all-day seminar in alternate weeks while his classes are covered by a substitute. Twenty-one quarter hours of credit are given for the internship experience.

The intern is supervised by both the local district and the College. The public school supervisors are chosen jointly by the College and the cooperating school. Although the pattern of released time for supervision varies, a supervisor is released at least an hour a day for each intern supervised. In team and other arrangements, such as grouping classes at the beginning and gradually moving toward self-contained situations, more time for supervision usually develops.

The college personnel supervise both interns and student teachers. In the secondary school area, some college supervision is assumed by professors in the intern's academic field. Usually a college supervisor visits an intern every two weeks. Five conferences a year are held for the supervisors of interns. These highly structured meetings focus on supervisory procedures and frequently feature presentations by nationally known authorities in the field of supervision.

The intern program at the Oregon College of Education provides a gradual induction into teaching by extending the supervisory period. Supervisors in the schools feel that they have become better teachers as they analyze themselves and work with interns. One advantage to the student is that the master's degree can be achieved, or almost achieved, while some income is being received. The College is able to work with a nucleus of schools and supervisors who are familiar with the program, although it is expanding to new schools and supervisors as well.

In spite of a few reservations, both college personnel and public school personnel feel that the program is successful. Many interns are retained in the system where they completed their intern year. Former interns find they are sought after by districts wanting to build team teaching and other innovative programs. Principals and supervisors generally feel that interns develop teaching skills faster than first-year teachers of comparable potential. A research study at Oregon College of Education concluded that interns recognized individual differences more quickly and made better allowances for these differences. They saw the relationship between daily activities and both long- and short-term goals earlier in the school year. They also experimented more with different teaching styles than members of the control group.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

The University of Southern California program is designed for both elementary and secondary education candidates. There are three alternate routes to certification at the University; two of them involve an internship. These programs have been designed to allow for the differences in needs of individuals who desire to enter the profession. They have tended to attract many graduates who otherwise might not select teaching. Many of the interns are young housewives and mothers who have degrees and some are older men who are beginning a second career.

Teacher Internship

The internship program involves one calendar year plus one summer and is reserved for the most promising candidates in teacher education. The secondary program is limited to the areas of greatest need, usually mathematics, science, and English. The intern candidate must have a bachelor's degree earned at least two years before applying for the program.

During the first semester or summer session, the candidate completes course work in curriculum and methods, child deveolpment, the learning process, guidance, and directed teaching. During the school year he works as a salaried intern teacher at five-sixths regular salary in a school district. During the intern year he is also enrolled in a seminar related to the internship situation.

The intern is supervised by a public school teacher who usually is responsible for six interns. Secondary school supervisors are released one period a day for supervision of the six interns. The elementary school supervisors have full-time assignments in supervision. College supervisors visit the interns approximately every other week. The Los Angeles School District pays one-half of the salary of the college supervisors.

Specialist-Teacher

The specialist-teacher program is a two-year graduate program which leads to both the California Standard Teaching Credential and the master's degree. During the first year the candidate carries approximately twenty-four units of graduate course work. For the first semester he works three hours daily as a teacher assistant in a public school, concurrently taking course work at the University. For the second half of the first year, the teacher assistant's work is reduced to two hours daily and he serves as a student teacher, conducting a class of his own for one hour daily. The teacher assistant receives a remuneration of $1530 a year for his services to the school.

During the summer, approximately ten units are divided between the teaching major and professional course work. In the second year the candidate is assigned to a half-time internship for the full year or to a full-time teaching assignment for the second half of the year. This program provides a gradual increase of teaching responsibilities through the teacher assistantship, student teaching, and internship.

The University of Southern California program is designed to provide for different individual needs and abilities by the use of different types of program sequences. It allows the candidate to experience the teacher's role while being engaged in the study of education. The program usually results in the candidate's viewing professional education as meaningful and profitable. The extended period of teacher assistant and intern work provides a greater range of experience and involvement. The teacher assistant program has been viewed as being of great help to the cooperating school. The schools, too, regard this program as valuable in that it provides recruitment potential for them.

The intern program has the problem of getting the intern teachers oriented to the job during the first few days. Limited experience plus a minimum amount of supervision can cause difficulties. This is not necessarily true of the interns who are pursuing the specialist-teacher program. Another problem is that the interns are sometimes assigned to the most difficult teaching situations, resulting in more potential problems. There is also a need for the improvement of supervision and coordination, although some progress is being made.

The teacher assistant phase probably has the most value in the preparation program. Through this extended period of time, the candidate gets a great amount of experience while the school is realizing the value of his service as well. It provides for a more gradual introduction into teaching, but the results indicate that the rate of retention of the interns is unusually high.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY

Stanford University's secondary education internship program is designed principally for liberal arts graduates who have had no education courses prior to admission. However, students with some background in professional education are accepted and some parts of their programs are waived.

The internship program, which has completely replaced student teaching at Stanford, requires twelve months to complete. The first summer session consists of intensive study in professional education and academic course work and includes experience in the instructional laboratory (microteaching clinic). Microteaching is a scaled-down teaching encounter in which the teacher teaches a small number of students (in this instance four or five) for about five minutes. During the individual-lesson phase of the clinic, the length of the lesson is increased to twenty minutes to give the student teachers an opportunity to teach content requiring a longer time. The microteaching experience is the only type of laboratory experience the student has prior to his intern teaching, but research at the University indicates it is a better predictor of teacher performance than student teaching.

During the academic year the intern teaches two classes a day in a selected school for one-third of a beginning teacher's salary. He is supervised by both an intern supervisor (tutor) and a public school teacher. During the school year the intern supervisor (a doctoral candidate in education who has completed a required course in intern supervision) makes a minimum of twenty visits. The period of observation of classroom practice usually lasts for about ten minutes and focuses on one or two specific teaching tasks. Video tapes are frequently made by the supervisor and then discussed with the intern. An intern can expect his performance to be video taped from eight to twelve times during the intern year. The intern supervisor has a maximum load of eight interns, but he also has other responsibilities at the University.

The public school supervisor has one period of released time to supervise three interns. He observes an intern at least forty times during the year and fills out a weekly appraisal. The University holds five meetings during the year with the public school supervisors.

The intern program at Stanford permits the completion of the California Standard Teaching Certificate and a master's degree in one year. The University generally works with the same staff of public school supervisors over a period of years. The program employs microteaching and video tape procedures for analysis to a considerable extent.

Coordination of the program is a problem in that it involves a somewhat changing staff of intern supervisors who must work closely with the schools to assign interns specifically needed for certain positions. The University continually attempts to do a better job of individualizing instruction for candidates. Related to this may be the problem of identifying the technical skills of the interns so they can be made operational.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The teacher intern program at the University of Wisconsin is a part of the Wisconsin Improvement Program. The major aim is the improvement of existing school and classroom practices and of programs for preparing teachers. It is designed to bring the resources of the University of Wisconsin, cooperating colleges, and selected school systems closer together in the study of the public school and teacher education programs. The internship is related to two specific parts of this program:

1. The development of a five-year rather than a four-year program leading to teacher certification
2. The improvement of clinical experiences for prospective teachers, including the development of the teacher internship.

The Wisconsin internship program is one of the largest, if not the largest, in the United States. In the 1966-67 school year, 580 interns were enrolled in the program—390 secondary and 190 elementary school teachers. It is continuing to grow.

In an effort to recognize that no one way for preparing teachers has been proved best, the Wisconsin program attempts to incorporate several different approaches into its teacher education program. Graduate candidates can earn teacher certification and the master's degree in education or jointly in education and an academic field. An undergraduate student may achieve a teaching certificate in his major field of study.

The intern chooses to spend one semester in the public school as a "teacher-in-team" instead of completing student teaching. This is an instructional arrangement wherein the intern teaches under the day-to-day supervision of one or more experienced teachers. The intern is assigned to a school for one semester in one of the sixty-three cooperating school systems as a member of a teaching team. A second intern will teach in the same situation during the second semester. The team arrangement varies from school to school, with some schools having large-group, small-group patterns of teaching while others have joint planning but individual responsibility for classes. The intern is normally responsible for from two-fifths to one-half of a teaching load (in the elementary program this is arranged by decreasing the number of students assigned to the intern) and is paid $1200 for his semester of teaching. Eight semester hours of credit are given for the intern experience.

The assignment of interns to schools is a joint responsibility of the School of Education, the intern's academic department, and the public school. Teaching assignments are usually recommended by a professor in the student's academic department after he has visited the public school.

Each supervisor and intern is expected to attend a summer conference on the university campus. This conference brings together administrators, teachers, professors, and interns who discuss the internship experience. Topics considered in the conference include team planning techniques, observation and supervision of interns, the technique and philosophy of discipline, the role of the school coordinator in teacher education, ideas on team teaching, planning for teaching and learning, analysis of teaching and learning, and problems of the intern. Supervising teachers and administrators are prepared to tell interns something about the schools and communities in which they work, about the classes they teach, and about policies relative to specific school systems. Interns have the opportunity to read and study curriculum guides, textbooks, and other materials which cooperating teachers are currently using. Tentative lesson plans are worked out together.

The main responsibility for supervision rests with the supervising teacher in the public school. The University assumes that the teacher is the real practitioner and is the one most qualified to work with a new teacher candidate, much as a resident physician supervises a medical intern. A supervisor must have at least one hour of planning time released for work with the intern. A university supervisor from the intern's academic department at the University makes at least four visits during the semester the intern is teaching. A central objective of the internship program is to ensure that the semester of teaching gives the student both the freedom and the responsibility of teaching.

The internship encourages the candidate to be a member of a professional team, participating in relevant responsibilities for instruction and sharing classroom responsibilities with veteran teachers. The program is flexible enough to allow undergraduates and graduates to participate, although undergraduates will have to secure an additional eight hours of credit either in another semester or through summer study. A liberal arts graduate, for example, can usually get a teaching certificate and a master's degree during one school year and two summers. The program, while providing a greater amount of experience for the teacher candidate, increases cooperation between the University and the public school. One of the unique features of the Wisconsin intern program is that it represents an approach which could possibly accommodate the total population of teacher candidates.

One of the major difficulties in the program is making sure in advance that two interns will be available for each assignment. Occasional changes will inevitably result with the numbers involved, and some teaching areas (library science, for example) can be quite a problem in personnel selection. Some people, as well, are unable to attend the summer orientation conference. The fact that the program exists with a minimum of university supervision and prior contacts with students leads to reexamination of certain accepted premises about the nature of teacher education.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN–MILWAUKEE

The University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee intern teaching program was developed jointly by the Milwaukee Public Schools and the School of Education.[2] The program was initiated in 1962 without funding from any outside source. It now offers internships at the elementary and secondary school levels.

The intern program supplements the regular student teaching program. Three basic purposes of the program are as follows:

1. To provide an opportunity for outstanding college graduates to prepare for a career in teaching
2. To bridge the gap between preparation and the first year of teaching
3. To study the process of preparing teachers.

The program requires two semesters and two summer sessions for completion. While it is not an MAT program, it can be combined with a graduate program leading to a master's degree in education.

The first phase of the program begins in the summer with the candidate spending half-days for six weeks in student teaching. The other half-day is devoted to related course work on the university campus. The interns are then hired by the school system under an intern license and accept full responsibility as staff members.

During the first semester of the academic year, two interns are placed in one school under the supervision of a coordinating teacher who is released from class work to devote full time to the interns. The coordinating teacher divides his time between the two interns, providing daily conferences and consultations, demonstration teaching and class visitations, and arranging for observations in other classrooms throughout the city. The coordinating teacher assists the interns in preparation of materials for teaching and may join an intern in a team-teaching arrangement for certain subjects or units. In general, the coordinating teacher works on a peer relationship with the interns and provides whatever assistance is appropriate. In addition, he helps the interns relate their teaching experiences to educational theory.

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[2] A similar program was developed with Marquette University.

Additional supervision is provided by the University, the school system, and the school principal. The coordinating teacher is involved in a weekly in-service seminar which focuses on supervision.

During the second semester the intern continues the same teaching responsibilities, but does not have the assistance of the coordinating teacher, who returns to full-time teaching. Continued supervision is provided by the University and the school system.

During both semesters the interns enroll in a weekly seminar course which focuses on the problems they encounter in teaching and provides a basis for studying and improving their teaching. A main purpose of the seminar is to relate theory to practice. Each intern may enroll for an additional three hours of credit.

The salary schedule for interns is the same as for a reserve teacher. The intern receives half pay during the first semester and full pay during the second semester, which amounts to approximately $3900 for the academic year.

Supervision of the program is shared jointly by the University and the school system. A city-college coordinator, on joint appointment with the University and the school system, assumes the responsibility for coordination during both semesters and shares the responsibility for conducting the seminar.

The program has been successful in inducting interns into teaching in the inner-city schools. The principals of the schools involved feel that the program lightens their load since the intern supervisors assume the responsibility for assisting the interns.

The responsibility for recruiting and selection of candidates for internships is shared by the University and the school system. The main source of applicants has been local, with the majority of candidates being housewives or persons who desire to change occupations. An increasing number of liberal arts graduates are applying for internships. Present indications are that the program will continue to expand slowly.

CHAPTER XIV

Reactions of Interns to Programs

Over the past twenty years the internship has evolved from a stopgap educational experience for the preparation of college graduates for teaching to a superior professional laboratory experience in the education of teachers. From a tacked-on fifth year, the internship has become an integral part of four- and five-year teacher education programs of many institutions.

Most directors, supervisors, and coordinators of intern programs are very laudatory in support of the internship. However, it seems that the most valid perceptions concerning the value of the internship should come from the participants themselves. In order to ascertain the feelings of interns in the field, intern "reactionnaires" were sent to each of the institutions listed in Chapter XIII. Eighty-six interns from six institutions submitted "reactionnaires" giving their evaluations of the respective programs.

In attempting to assess these returns, it should be remembered that the programs at the University of California, University of Oregon, and University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee represent fifth-year graduate programs; the programs at Central Michigan and Michigan State University are four- or five-year undergraduate programs; and the program at Colorado State College is part of the four-year undergraduate program in teacher education.

In soliciting responses from the interns, questions were posed concerning (a) advantages of the internship over student teaching; (b) weaknesses of the internship experience; (c) willingness to again choose internship; (d) highlights of the internship experience; and (e) other comments concerning the internship.

ADVANTAGES OF THE INTERNSHIP

The comments concerning the advantages of the internship programs are reported in two groups—fifth-year and undergraduate programs.

Fifth-Year Programs

The most frequently stated advantage of the fifth-year internship was that of increased experience in the classroom. The "learning while doing" response was very common. One student stated that the advantage of the internship was in "actual experience in a true learning situation with my own students to 'mold' and a principal to work with." Another stated that "one is able to experiment with techniques both in methods concerning curriculum and in discipline." Many students commented that it was an advantage to become directly and immediately involved as a teacher in the classroom. Other comments concerning the experience factor in the internship were as follows:

More vicarious experience
Learning to teach by teaching
On-the-job training
No theoretical laboratory
Practical experience.

Some interns reacted against the role of the student teaching supervisor. One stated that the internship offers "lots of trial-and-error experiences without a supervisor breathing down your neck." Another stated that "you learn more from experience than from imitation." A third said that in the internship there is "no master teacher hovering over you, thus dampening individualism."

The second major advantage listed by the fifth-year interns was the monetary benefit derived from the internship. This was quite succinctly stated by one intern as "earning while learning." Many thought it a great advantage to be able to finance their fifth year of college by the internship. Another student commented that it "enables the student to start making money a year earlier."

The third most common advantage mentioned in this study was in the area of increased responsibility. In the internship there was opportunity for "increased responsibility at an earlier date and for a longer period" of time. One intern stated, "I am the teacher in my class. Any discipline that occurred was mine." Another said, "I am free to completely dedicate myself to the class." Others enrolled in the fifth-year program felt that it was a real advantage to "function as a regular teacher," to have "full control and complete responsibility for the class," and to "be in charge of the classroom situation." The "large amount of responsibility which the intern is required to assume in the classroom" seemed to be a real advantage to many.

Other stated advantages of the fifth-year internship were the availability of supervision and the inherent characteristics and opportunity afforded by the fifth-year program. Several students appreciated the "guidance of the experienced teacher" while still retaining control of the class. Another commented on having "more direct supervision during [the] entire first year of teaching." Other comments included the "security of university backing during the first year of teaching" and just the advantage of having "available supervisors for criticism and help."

The inherent advantages of the fifth-year program, such as "a chance to get into teaching at an earlier date," "entrance to the profession for the liberal arts major," and the "more mature attitude" of the liberal arts graduate, were mentioned by the interns.

Undergraduate Programs

If any one comment were to be selected as indicative of the major advantage of the internship, it would be, "I like being able to work with the class for the whole year." Almost every intern "reactionnaire" used a variation of this comment in listing the advantages of the internship. Comments ranged from simple statements of "additional experience" or "full-year's experience" to lengthy explanations of how much more security the intern had gained in the classroom after the regular student teacher would have been through; for example:

> It took almost the full first quarter for me to get over being nervous, and then I was able to see what it is like to teach without so much pressure. If I had been a regular student teacher, I would have been very unhappy about becoming a teacher.

Almost all of the interns felt that the internship gave them an "extended and more realistic concept of what teaching really is."

One outgrowth of this extended year's experience was the additional time to observe pupils in the classroom and assess their growth and development. This was stated by interns as the opportunity to see "immense changes in the children and learn how to cope with these changes" or to "see the scholastic growth of students during the entire school year and have the opportunity to provide for individual differences." One intern felt that the major advantage of the internship was in "viewing the total year of child behavior and child learning." This was echoed by other interns who commented on the advantage of "being able to see changes in the pupils" and that of seeing the "tremendous growth and development of the children as they progress through the school year."

The third most commonly cited advantage of the undergraduate internship was the freedom and ability for self-expression that the interns felt in the classroom. This was indicated by comments on the value of a chance "to prove methods and try out one's own ideas." An intern stated that he "learned to handle things" by himself, while other commented on "the total involvement of immersion in teaching." A typical intern commented on having "more freedom and choice in your classroom."

As would be supposed, many students felt that the internship provided the intern an opportunity to see the workings of the profession—to "see what it is really like to be a teacher." Comments ranged from "learning what is expected of a teacher" to "greater development of professional attitude." One intern stated that the internship gave him the "chance to experience my expected profession before finishing training." Another stated that the internship made him "more aware of how the teaching world is really run and the problems teachers must face each day."

Closely tied to the concept of professional attitude were the numerous comments on the advantage of feeling a "part of the school system." Several interns commented on the "closer association with the faculty" and the "feeling of being an actual member of the teaching staff and sharing the responsibilities of that position." One stated that she was "accepted as a faculty member and treated as one." Other interns listed as a real advantage of their program the experience in "comparing several school systems." Being a "paid member of the staff," "financial advantage," and "help in working your way through college" also received many comments.

Interns from one college felt that "correlation with classes on campus" was really important. The ability to "take methods courses while you are actually teaching" was listed as a definite advantage. Students from another college felt that they received "more help from the critic teacher." Others reported "better rapport with the cooperating teacher" and "added time available to help and observe the master teacher," and one intern felt the advantage of having the "services of a professional consultant."

Students from most of the reporting institutions commented on the value of the "dialogue in the seminar sessions." An intern felt that the "seminars and individual attention help [the intern] to feel his way with confidence but with awareness that there is still much to learn." Other advantages listed by undergraduate interns were the "gain in general maturity," the "challenge and prestige of participating in an experimental program," and the "experience in team teaching."

WEAKNESSES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE INTERNSHIP

Although most interns felt that the advantages of the program far outweighed the disadvantages, they still felt that there were some basic weaknesses in their program that could be corrected. Both graduate and undergraduate students listed important concerns.

Fifth-Year Programs

Many graduate students felt that their internship experience could have been much improved by giving greater stress to "more intensive preparation" before the internship. Some typical comments follow: the lack of "formal education courses before I jumped into interning put me behind in planning, discipline, and techniques to employ in the classroom"; a great weakness was "finding out so late in the year all the wonderful things your class could have been doing if you'd only known about them before"; "lack of an overall view of teaching before one enters the profession"; "too little practical instruction before interning year"; "never learned some of the shortcuts that would have helped me"; "not enough methods courses are required"; "inadequate methods preparation courses"; and a general "lack of instructional training."

Other students felt that it would have been helpful to "learn how the whole school system operates and what is taught at each level" prior to entering the internship. In line with this, an intern stated that he felt a "more thorough understanding of the role and expected aims" of the intern would have been helpful. One intern summed up this feeling with the statement, "The main weaknesses of the internship experience were the feelings I often had of being 'on the spot' without knowing 'the rules of the game,' of 'flying blind,' you might say."

The preinternship summer student teaching experience also came in for some criticism by the interns. Several felt that it was "poorly organized" or "not a realistic program." Others simply stated "summer practice teaching" under weaknesses, without amplification. Similar comments were made concerning the internship seminars. Some interns felt that there was "not enough sharing of ideas among interns" and that seminars were not "enlightening enough—need more specific ideas that would be useful for grade level."

An apparent dichotomy seemed to exist between those interns who felt that they needed more methods courses and those who felt that the concurrent courses taken during the internship were "a waste of time." Several mentioned that the night courses were "overly burdensome" or "lacking in content."

Inadequate supervision was listed by several interns, along with a desire to define more closely the role and relationship between the intern teacher and his supervisor. In reading the interns' evaluation of weaknesses in their respective programs, it seemed that they desired more time, more suggestions, more counseling, more supervision, more observation, and more opportunity to consult with other interns and intern supervisors.

Undergraduate Programs

A great diversity of ideas and little agreement existed concerning the weaknesses of the undergraduate internship. Comments ranged from "none that I can put my finger on" to a long list of weaknesses. In only a few cases were some of the weaknesses listed by more than one intern. Most disadvantages seemed to center around specific programs or the personalities of those concerned. For example, at one institution where the internship is built around a half-day program, criticisms centered around the difficulty of "keeping up with college classes and internship," or "college classes suffer because of teaching responsibilities." Some interns indicated that their "grades had suffered" and that pressure was put on them from two directions—the school district and the college. Interns at another university complained of lack of preparation in "what your actual duties will be" and "lack of organization and planning dealing with just what I was supposed to teach, grading, and my relationship with other teachers."

An intern complained of not having enough time to "obtain new experiences and to afford reflection." Several students complained of an inadequate orientation to the school and faculty. One stated that "something should be worked out where the student interns meet with the principal—we were unsure and needed to know the principal's reaction to us." Other interns stated that they desired "more constructive criticisms from the intern supervisor." Another stated it would be helpful if the intern supervisor would observe and give the intern "written observations of weaknesses and strengths."

Other comments by the undergraduate interns included the following:

> In some cases the teacher or the administration did not know what the intern was to be used for
> There is a need for more encouragement from faculty members
> Poor relationship between student and school
> Consultants appear to have too large a load
> There is some danger of an intern teacher being given too much responsibility before he is ready.

One wrote tongue in cheek that the biggest drawback "is coming back to school and applying yourself after you have enjoyed yourself teaching for a semester."

WILLINGNESS TO AGAIN CHOOSE INTERNSHIP

When asked if they would again use the internship as the vehicle for entrance into the teaching profession, over 90 percent of the interns responded with a definite "Yes," about 5 percent were unsure, and about 5 percent said "No."

Fifth-Year Programs

Most comments from the interns in fifth-year programs were extremely favorable to their internship experience and their willingness to assume the responsibility of such a program. Some of these reactions follow:

> It has taught me more, I'm sure, than any schooling I have had.
> Yes, for these reasons: More contact with university through the year; more independence in teaching at an earlier date; close relationship with other teachers and supervisors.
> I enjoy feeling independent in the classroom.
> I would again choose the internship, but it would be with a little more preparation in education courses and a little more consideration about the mountains of work involved.
> I would again select the internship because of its practicality with respect to getting out of school and getting started without any great financial worries. The pay helps and the experience is tremendous.
> A year in one grade level gives you a real good picture of what teaching is all about, plus the money you get paid during this program helps.
> The practical experience seems to be invaluable to preparation for a successful career in the teaching profession.
> The intern program gave me a chance to get on my own feet.
> An excellent way to enter the teaching profession.
> The intern program is the most efficient way for preparing someone like me to teach, as I had no previous education courses.

Those who would not have entered the internship program commented,

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"I don't feel that I gained that much from the program," and "I believe that for the person who has completed an undergraduate program in education, the intern program is not needed."

Undergraduate Programs

After having experienced the internship for a year, one intern wrote, "If I had it to do over again, I would select the internship program even sooner and with less reserve than I did before." This seemed to be the typical kind of response. Some of the other affirmative comments were as follows:

> As a result of my internship, I feel that I am going out as a first-year teacher much better qualified.
>
> Through the internship I have come to know for sure that I want to teach.
>
> By teaching for a whole school year, an intern learns every aspect—good or bad—of teaching.
>
> Each day I am more confident that I *can* teach and teach well.
>
> I feel that I have learned more during the year of internship than all other three years of my college career.
>
> The internship program has prepared me for every part of the year.
>
> The extended and realistic experience has been most beneficial.
>
> The internship tests the metal of a person.
>
> In the internship they treat you as a teacher and not a student.
>
> Experience is truly the best teacher and the intern program offers exactly this.
>
> I much prefer the challenge and opportunities offered under the internship.
>
> The internship is a good way to find out if teaching is for you . . . one has to be dedicated to survive.
>
> During the internship program one gains insights into some of the many future problems.
>
> The internship helped me to fix the direction of my college career. This is the profession I want to pursue.
>
> Through the internship I know for sure that I want to be a teacher.
>
> The internship has been very rewarding and worth my time. Now, I know for sure I have chosen the right profession.
>
> In the internship you are really part of the functioning school system.

The one intern enrolled in the undergraduate program who indicated that he would not choose the internship again stated, "If I wasn't as concerned with money, I would definitely not start or select it again."

INTERNSHIP HIGHLIGHTS

Each intern was asked to state the highlights of his intern teaching experience. Space requirements preclude a complete resumè of responses to this question. As with previous questions, a high percentage of responses was extremely favorable to the program. Some interns became quite effusive in extolling the benefits of the internship. For the sake of brevity, some intern statements from each of the replying institutions are cited:

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> I feel that it would be impossible to name one event as being the highlight of the internship experience. It was a combination of many events which led to a satisfying experience. However, the moment that I shall probably remember always was the first day alone in the classroom. This was sort of a moment of awakening when I had to change from being a follower of another's ideas to being a leader of my own.
>
> I think I will always remember the faculty with whom I worked as a student [intern]. They have made me proud that I am going to be a teacher and through their willingness to help and their friendliness encouraged a warm atmosphere in which to work.
>
> The highlight of my experience was being able to get to know the students as they really are and not just as so much data in a book. Personal contact was the best.

II

> The greatest highlight of this experience was being considered a full-fledged teacher and having my own group to teach without direct supervision of another teacher.
>
> For me, the one major highlight of intern teaching is that, having set a tone and a pace for learning during the first quarter, I get to stay on and experience the joy of seeing some results. I get to see students give their confidence and respect and to begin to respond, to think, and to learn.
>
> The major highlight is that of the total experience offered by the program. Another, the realization of the numerous responsibilities of a teacher and the opportunities to accept these responsibilities independent of a supervising teacher. And, of course, the collection of numerous ideas and teaching aids will enable me to be a better teacher.

III

> Working with people who have the same concern about childern as I do. Especially having the pleasurable experience of working with the "center" director and consultants. I consider the opportunity to be on the forefront of the educational field very valuable.
>
> The relationship between the intern consultant and myself and the development of an attitude that I can easily share my classroom with another teacher.
>
> The group seminars where everything and anything was discussed and debated. The grade-group meetings with the sharing of ideas. The reassurance given me by my consultant when I wasn't sure I was doing the right thing, plus the constructive criticism given me when I requested it.

IV

> I feel that the most wonderful part of interning is the close companionship with fellow interns and the many sources of shared information to which a student teacher would not be exposed.

Contacts with individual students . . . recalling getting to know them is to me the most enjoyable part of teaching. Having them ask intelligent questions is thrilling, too.

The fun times with the children and music and in learning—the sudden light flashes and understanding hours.

V

The opportunity to realize my potential as an instructor while not feeling as oppressed and worried as most first-year teachers I have witnessed. Generally, just the realization that I completely enjoy teaching as an occupation in all respects.

Perhaps the most significant thing that I gained from the intern program is the realization of how much I have to learn in order to become a good classroom teacher.

I have gained an insight to the "real" teaching conditions which may be present. I have found that some things which work great on paper do not have that effect in the classroom. I *know* that organization and accurate planning is *very* necessary in a good learning situation. The ideas and advice I have received from my various co-workers will give me a great deal of help and confidence in the future, I'm sure. I feel this removed any false impressions I may have received about the teaching profession during my student teaching experience. I found that *teaching is what I want to do,* this I think is the most significant of all.

VI

The highlights of my internship experience were my experiences in the classroom. I never realized how creative and exciting working with children can be.

The interaction with the interns and the discussion of our mutual problems was both a valuable and a personally satisfying experience. I also enjoyed the responsibility and relative independence given the interns.

The mutual sharing of successes and failures in the intern seminar was a tremendous help. It was also a great comfort to have an experienced teacher to turn to.

With one exception, all interns reacted very favorably to the highlights of the internship. It is only fitting that the one negative statement be included in this section: *Question:* What do you consider to be the highlights of your internship experience? *Answer:* "None, it's been tough."

IN CONCLUSION

To attempt to collate and synthesize the statements of ninety-five individuals with backgrounds and experiences as different as those offered by the six institutions is a great challenge. However, it is hoped that enough direct statements are included to fully express the feelings of those involved in the internship program. It was felt by the interns that the major advantages of the internship were (a) the increased experience offered by the extended period of teaching time, (b) the increased responsibility of the classroom,

(c) financial remuneration for internship, (d) its usefulness in enabling liberal arts graduates to enter the profession, and (e) the opportunity to see children mature and grow over the period of internship.

Disadvantages and program weaknesses listed by the interns were (a) the need for more intensive preparation prior to the internship, (b) the need for better orientation to the school and faculty, and (c) the pressures and demands of keeping up with requirements in both the school and the university.

Almost all of the interns felt that if they were given the opportunity and were approaching the laboratory experience again, they would select the internship. All but one student listed the highlights of the program in very positive terms. Although many considered the internship as hard work and very demanding, they felt that the benefits derived therefrom were well worth the effort.

Since this chapter has been devoted to expressing the viewpoints of those students presently engaged in internship programs, it is appropriate that it end with a quote from one of those interns:

> I believe one of the best ways to become child-conscious and to develop to one's fullest in teaching is through the internship.
>
> An individual, while in the intern training, seems to recognize his development and growth, but he is also more conscious of his faults. One becomes more cognizant of what it is that teachers do with the human personality. The internship program is the much needed dialogue . . . in preparing people to teach. In this world's most important profession, one must be alert and in tune to the new and varied philosophies of teaching. Internship provides this opportunity to learn while practicing and one's own laboratory in which to see ideas come alive.

CHAPTER XV

Annotated Bibliography: Internships in Teacher Education

Allen, Dwight W. "A New Design for Teacher Education: The Teacher Intern Program at Stanford University." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 296-300; Fall 1966.

Reviews the Stanford program of internship teaching in which liberal arts graduates do microteaching during a summer quarter and then serve nine months of internship, teaching two classes at one-third beginning salary. The author describes use of microteaching, tutor supervisors, resident supervisors, video recordings, time-lapse photography, and the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide as techniques of the internship program.

Allen, Dwight W.; Boyan, Norman J.; and Kimball, Roland B. "Innovation in Teacher Education: Parallel Programs as a Stimulus." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1963. pp. 129-39.

Describes recruitment, selection of cooperating schools, responsibility of supervising teachers, and course work in the Stanford University Teaching Intern Program. Emphasizes the necessity of experimentation in the field of teacher education as well as in different programs of teacher preparation within the institution.

Allen, Dwight W., and Gross, Richard. "Microteaching—A New Beginning for Beginners." *NEA Journal* 40: 25-26; December 1965.

Describes in close detail the content and techniques used in the summer microteaching clinic held at Stanford University to prepare secondary education interns for teaching. Seventy-nine percent of 1964-1965 interns at Stanford rated the microteaching clinic as the strongest part of their pre-internship program.

Allen, Dwight W., and Bush, Robert N. "The Winds of Freedom." *High School Journal* 5: 168-73; February 1960.

Reports on the development of the Stanford University internship program which was designed to overcome some of the weaknesses of traditional teacher education programs and achieve a breakthrough to higher levels of professional standards. Includes a summary table comparing the allocation of credits and types of courses under a typical secondary teacher preparation program at Stanford University and the experimental internship program.

Alterman, Rolland A. "A New Phase in Teacher Preparation." *Michigan Education Journal* 42: 45-46; September 1964.

Presents the advantages afforded by a teacher intern program in contrast to traditional student teaching programs and suggests that the intern concept can serve as a vehicle for improving teacher education. Because of technical limitations, however, the author believes the intern concept will not be adopted by all institutions for all students.

Anderson, John E., and Kropp, Russell R. "Teacher Roles Before and After Internship." *Journal of Educational Research* 56: 365-69; March 1963.

Describes research carried on at Florida State University to determine the shaping of attitudes about teaching during the period of internship. Outlines the procedure of research, instruments used, methods of analysis, and results. The results showed that there was little difference between the actual and ideal, i.e., between what interns ideally would like to do and what they actually can do.

Bantel, Edward A. "Teacher Education Experimental Projects." *Childhood Education* 42: 417-21; March 1966.

An outline and report of an experiment conducted at Wayne State University for preparing career teachers. The outline shows the professional sequence for the fourth year, the internship for the fifth year, and the externship for the sixth year. The report presents the project overview and suggested guidelines for developing the professional curriculum.

———. "Wayne State University Teacher Education Experimental Project." *New Developments, Research, and Experimentation in Professional Laboratory Experiences.* Bulletin No. 22. (Edited by Curtis E. Nash.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1964. pp. 117-18.

Abstract of a clinic presentation made at the 1964 Convention of the Association for Student Teaching. Reviews aim of the project, which was to develop competence in teachers in eight areas. Fifth- and sixth-year programs for the interns are presented in detail. The University hopes to get a better understanding of the influence of the professional curriculum on the student product of both fifth- and sixth-year programs, as well as the fourth-year program.

Bantel, Edward A.; Ellsworth, Ruth; and Fair, Jean. "Overview of the Teacher Education Experimental Project." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. National Education Association, 1964. pp. 347-51.

Describes the Wayne State University programs of professional prepara- for both elementary and secondary teaching which involve a fifth and a sixth year of preparation. The fifth year includes an internship.

Beck, Hugo E. "The Teacher-Scholar: A Two-Year Program." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and

Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1964. pp. 108-20.

Describes the two-year Master of Arts in Teaching program at the University of Chicago, which includes an internship during the second year.

Bergstrom, Howard E. "Internship for Teachers at Half-Load and Half-Pay: An Hypothesis." *Journal of Teacher Education* 7: 206-12; September 1956.

Reviews practices utilized in fifth-year programs of teacher possessing a state teaching certificate. Program would feature a supervised internship for half-time and half-pay, and concurrent seminars, with professional and subject matter courses taken in summers and extension.

Bishop, Clifford L. "The Organization of Internships for Teachers." *School Review* 56: 536-47; November 1948.

Deals with a study conducted to determine (a) if there were any dominant trend in the internship program for teachers, and (b) if there were one organization of teacher internship that should be followed. To determine if any dominant trend in the internship program existed, a study was made among fifty-nine institutions of higher learning; to determine if there were any particular organization that should be followed, opinions were obtained from a jury of thirty-six specialists in teacher education.

______. "The Purposes of Teacher Internship." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 34: 35-43; January 1948.

Reports the results of a questionnaire survey based on replies of thirty-six specialists in teacher education and one hundred seven administrators on the purposes of the internship program. The responses reveal that the main purpose of a program of internship is to provide for the professional development of the young teacher through a close integration of theory and practice.

______. "The Supervision of Teacher Internship." *Educational Research Bulletin* 27: 125-32; May 1948.

Reports the results of a questionnaire survey on the responsibility for the supervision of the intern teacher in fifty-nine teacher education institutions and the opinions of thirty-six specialists on the subject. Although no general agreement was found regarding the responsibility for the supervision of the intern, responses reveal that 88 percent of institutions receive some form of direction from the college or university, an arrangement favored by 97 percent of the specialists.

Blackmore, Dorothy S.; Sowards, G. W.; and Robinson, Clark, editors. *The Place of Internship Programs in Teacher Education.* (California Council on Teacher Education, Committee on the Teaching Internship.) Bulletin Vol. 29, No. 9. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. September 1960.

Analyzes the development of the internship program in California based on the experience of twenty-five programs over a six-year period. Programs originally designed for expedient purposes have developed into strong supplemental programs of teacher preparation. Detailed guidelines for a model internship program are included.

Boodish, Hyman M. "ITPCG: A New Approach to Teacher Training." *Social Studies* 55: 24-27; January 1964.

Describes and evaluates the three-year internship program at Temple University. Designed for liberal arts graduates, the program includes three years of teaching with full classroom responsibilities; during the last two years the intern takes graduate work leading to a master of education degree.

Bovinet, Wesley B. "Glenbrook Report on Four Experiments on Utilization of Staff." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 44: 244-53; January 1960.

Summarizes a report on the successful use of interns in an experimental program conducted entirely by an Illinois school district. A longer period of internship is suggested: one year of full-time teaching under supervision of the university and two years under supervision of the school district.

Boyan, Norman J. "The Intern Team as a Vehicle for Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 17-24; March 1965.

Suggests that the paid teaching internship can easily be incorporated into a team-teaching arrangement. Of the several alternative patterns presented for the temporal placement of the internship, a graduate internship program with an optimum load of graduate study in the teaching field requires serious compromises in the length of internship and amount of professional course work. The author emphasizes the desirability of a preinternship summer teaching experience for interns and a summer workshop for interns, senior teachers, and college staff.

Brink, William G. "Internship as a Means of Vitalizing Teacher Preparation." *Educational Trends* 9: 13-17; January-February 1941.

Lists factors responsible for the establishment of an internship program at Northwestern University. Among the findings of a questionnaire survey of eighty-four former interns, it was indicated that, as teachers, interns had strong leadership abilities.

Butterweck, Joseph S. *Preparing Teachers for Secondary Schools: Pilot Study II of an Experimental Program in Teacher Education.* Philadelphia: Temple University, 1960.

Comprehensive report and analysis of a controlled experiment conducted by Temple University with teaching interns. The findings suggest that over a three-year period individuals lacking preprofessional training can perform as well as those trained in traditional programs. The report suggests that the internship pattern of preparation can provide a valuable source of new teachers and should be widely adopted.

Calvert, Leonard, and Melbo, I. R. "The Southern California High School Specialist-Teacher Program—A New Two-Year Graduate Preparation." *High School Journal* 5: 164-67; February 1960.

Brief account of the two-year cooperative Specialist-Teacher Program conducted jointly by the University of Southern California and the Los Angeles Public Schools. The use of a progressive internship experience along with academic work at the graduate level provides a more gradual introduction into teaching than the regular one-year internship program.

Cangemi, Jo Ann, and Marcotte, Lacy A. "A New Approach to Teacher Education in Louisiana." *Louisiana Schools* 44: 4-6; September 1966.

Presents the intern as a participating member of the teaching profession. Outlines the project as a four-year program which incorporates all of the fundamental ideas of internship, including the payment of the intern by the school board. Also presents the basic benefits to be derived from such pilot project.

Cannon, W. E. "Integration and the Internship Teacher Plan." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 28: 61-64; January 1942.

Outlines the need for integrating educational theory and actual teaching experience during the period of teacher education internship. Describes in particular the plan put into effect by the College of Education of the University of Illinois.

Chase, Francis S. "Chicago Initiates New Two-Year Graduate Programs for High School Teachers." *High School Journal* 5: 196-201; February 1960.

Outlines the two-year graduate teacher preparation program at the University of Chicago and the factors responsible for its development. In association with a strong team of career teachers, students participate in a nine-month internship program during the second year.

Corman, Bernard R., and Olmsted, Ann G. *The Internship in the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1964.

Traces the development of the Michigan State University Student Teacher Education Program (STEP) from its experimental stage into the regular elementary teacher preparation program now designated as the Elementary Intern Program. A full-year undergraduate internship period makes a college degree and certification possible for students who would otherwise have been denied an opportunity for financial reasons.

Cronin, Joseph; Laurits, James; and Smith, Hamlin. "Preparing Teachers for the Next Decade." (Symposium.) *Journal of Secondary Education* 36: 224-30; April 1961.

Discusses the use of interns in team teaching in Palo Alto, California. Suggests that interns comprise 10 percent of staff and that beginning teachers have intern status for at least two years. Lists the necessary changes in school personnel and salaries to accompany a full internship program.

Denemark, George W. "Off-Campus Involvement of Students in the Education of the Disadvantaged." *North Central Association Quarterly* 41: 254-62; Winter 1966.

Describes the assignment of elementary interns from the fifth-year program at the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee to a poststudent-teaching internship in an inner-city schoolroom with disadvantaged children under the tutelage of a regular teacher. The placement is unique in that the Milwaukee Board of School Directors finances the internship program, which concentrates on preparing teacher of the disadvantaged.

Douglass, Malcolm P. "Internship: A Major Change." *CTA Journal* 56: 11-12; November 1960.

Maintains that the teaching internship concept is the most promising recent development in teacher education. The rapid growth and enthusiastic support for intern programs attests to its usefulness and increasing acceptance as one way to train superior teachers.

Earl, Samuel A. "An Examination of Selected Opinion on Teacher Internship in the Province of Alberta." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Bozeman: Montana State University, 1965.

In Alberta, teacher internship is the name given to the practice of providing practical experience for beginning teachers who serve with cooperating teachers during May and June in the school system where they are to be employed as full-time teachers in September. Candidates have already completed certification requirements. At the time this study was conducted, no other Canadian province had internship programs in operation.

Epstein, Jack. "Project Mission: Baltimore's Adventure in Teacher Education." *Educational Leadership* 24: 316-18; January 1967.

Describes a Ford Foundation-funded joint program of the Baltimore City Schools and three cooperating colleges wherein college seniors and graduate students intern in the inner-city schools teaching underprivileged youth. Elementary and secondary interns teach half-days under the guidance of cooperating teachers, take concomitant course work in the same school building in the afternoon, and contribute additional time to tutorial or remedial work with the children. A side benefit has been that the three colleges involved have cooperated in standardizing procedures, courses, and grading policy, and have extended reciprocal student privileges to the interns.

Epstein, Jack, and others. "Teachers for the Disadvantaged: Project Mission." *National Elementary Principal* 46: 13-16; January 1967.

Describes the Baltimore inner-city project, giving greater emphasis to the new teaching techniques used by interns and master teachers.

Fine, Benjamin. "Teachers for Tomorrow's Schools." *High School Journal* 5: 223-30; February 1960.

Describes the various internship patterns developed by Yeshiva University and recommends a model one-year program for an intern teacher in secondary education. The author attributes the success of the internship program to the initial selection of students who combine maturity, motivation, and intelligence.

Fisher, J. Sherrick, and Frautschy, Frances. "San Diego Intern Teachers." *NEA Journal* 46: 244-45; April 1957.

Describes the operation of the San Diego Intern Teacher Program, a cooperative venture of San Diego State College and the San Diego City School System. A 1:4 advisory-teacher and intern ratio, good pay for interns, employment of coordinators to ensure a coordination of approach to teaching problems, and good public relations program to inform parents and the public are among the essentials listed for a good intern program.

Foulkes, John Guy, and O'Brien, Dean W. "The Teaching Internship—University of Wisconsin." *High School Journal* 47: 132-37; December 1963.

Outlines the background and operation of the University of Wisconsin Internship Program and the factors responsible for its rapid development. Emphasizes the necessity of establishing good working relationships with local school systems, cooperating colleges, and the state department of education.

Gates, Samuel. "Teacher Education in the Next Decade." *Teachers College Journal* 37: 258-62; May 1966.

Suggests that by 1975 five years of academic education will be required for all teachers and that most professional education courses will be taught in off-campus centers where paid interning teachers will go for in-service education.

Glennon, Vincent J. "The Road Ahead in Teacher Education." *Phi Delta Kappan* 39: 47-52; November 1957.

Maintains that preservice teacher education should consist of four years of general and three years of professional work. An internship program would be utilized in the first two years of graduate work. Suggests that federal and state governments will have to increase their support to finance this extended professional education program.

Gubser, Joy Hills. "The Oregon Program: A Design for the Improvement of Education." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1964. pp. 351-64.

Discusses the Oregon State Department of Education program which involves seven colleges and twenty-five school districts in a commitment to a professional internship as a part of teacher preparation.

Gubser, Joy Hills, and Ward, William R. "Developing the Teaching Internship Concept in Oregon." *Journal of Teacher Education* 15: 252-61; September 1964.

Describes and evaluates Oregon's two-year experience with the teaching internship, including tables of summary data on 179 interns from nine colleges and universities, an analysis of problems encountered, and a comparison of interns wtih other first-year teachers. Appendix includes twelve types of organizational patterns and descriptions of teaching intern programs in use in Oregon.

Haberman, Martin. "A Comparison of Interns with Regular First-Year Teachers." *Journal of Educational Research* 59: 92-94; October 1965.

In a comparison of first-year elementary teachers trained in the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee undergraduate education program with elementary teaching interns from that same University, the author found that the first-year teachers were judged to be significantly less "responsible, systematic, and businesslike" than the interns. A team of observers using the Ryan Classroom Observation Record judged the teachers' behavior.

———. "Intern Concept in Teacher Education." *Wisconsin Journal of Education* 96: 12-13; January 1964.

Presents the seven basic beliefs which undergird the internship program at the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee. The author feels that a thorough review of teacher education is necessary and that the trend will be toward a four-plus-one pattern, including an internship period.

———. "The Teaching Behavior of Successful Interns." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 215-20; June 1965.

The director of the Intern Teaching Program at the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee has presented conclusions based on a two-year study involving twenty-eight beginning interns. This was an attempt to differentiate between successful and unsuccessful interns and to determine discriminating factors that can be utilized to identify the successful interns. Almost as intriguing as the factors deemed to be discriminatory are those deemed *not* to be discriminatory. The thesis is advanced that the goals of teacher preparation should be demonstrated teacher behaviors.

Hanes, Roy C., and Nash, Curtis E. "They Lead Two Lives." *NEA Journal* 54: 12-14; May 1965.

Describes the operation of the Central Michigan University Five-Year Intern Program. Program was described as a three-part endeavor: teacher assistant, teacher extern, and teacher associate. The program was evaluated by students, administrators, cooperating teachers, university faculty, and board members.

Hanlon, James P. "Changes in Teacher Education: Influences, Directions, Implications." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 25-28; March 1965.

Predicts a future two- or three-year internship period in which beginning teachers would be supervised by teacher-preparing institutions and during which teachers would continue university-structured in-service education. Also predicts a state examination at the end of a teacher's internship, successful performance on which would merit a license to teach.

Harap, Henry. *The Teaching Internship Program.* Teacher Education Series OE-58004. Washington, D.C.: Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1961.

Detailed analysis of forty-eight fifth-year programs in which internship teaching was required of all students revealed a diversity in curriculum patterns, duration of programs, and amount of supervision provided. Recommendations include the requirement of a period of practice teaching prior to internship experience.

Harvey, C. C. "Internship in the Professional Education of Teachers." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 28: 375-81; May 1942.

Overview of internship programs existing in the United States in 1942, including a description of the internship program at the University of Illinois. The author summarizes the objectives and standards of the now defunct National Association of Intern Teacher Education.

Hinley, Reginald. "The Prediction of Readiness for Teaching as Measured by Performance in Internship." *New Developments, Research, and Experimentation in Professional Laboratory Experiences.* Bulletin No. 22. (Edited by Curtis E. Nash.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1964.

A speech delivered at the 1964 Convention of the Association for Student Teaching. Evaluates the teacher preparation program in light of performance of its interns in teacher education. The author feels that the evaluation process has not been valid because those evaluating the program have failed to fully recognize the criteria, the data, and the multivariables in the problem.

Hurlburt, Allan S. "Student Teaching as a Part of the Post-Liberal Arts Professional Year." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 75-80.

Analysis of eleven internship programs which reveals great diversity of approach. The author emphasizes the total university responsibility in teacher education and suggests that student teachers (interns) should be guided by specialists from content fields as well as education faculty. The inclusion of the liberal arts faculty will strengthen the program, and their knowledge of the beginning teacher's needs should help them reorient their content course work. The author also suggests that each program establish an advisory committee on teacher education made up of more professors from liberal arts fields than from professional education.

Hutson, P. W. "A Proposed Program for the Fifth Year in Teacher Education." *School and Society* 80: 37-40; August 7, 1954.

Hutson's ideas and views concerning the fifth year of teacher education. Deals mainly with suggestions for improvement of the fifth-year program; Mr. Hutson outlines his own plan for a worthwhile fifth-year program in teacher education.

Irvine, William L. "Project I: An Experimental Program for the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1964. pp. 77-89.

Summarizes the cooperative activities of four universities—Buffalo, Cornell, Rochester, and Syracuse—in an experimental program to recruit and prepare superior liberal arts students for careers in secondary teaching and administration. In several instances, the regular teacher preparatory programs were modified to reflect the more successful experiences of the experimental program.

Johnson, Patrick, and Smith, E. Brooks. "Teacher Internship and Teacher Aide Programs." *School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures for the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education.* Washington,

D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, a department of the National Education Association, 1964. pp. 81-100.

Reviews briefly the internship program of the Harvard Graduate School of Education and of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee as well as the teacher aide program of the University of Puerto Rico. Presents the admission standards and outlines in general the purposes and procedures of each program. Also lists twenty other universities and colleges which have one or both of these programs.

Keppel, Francis; Robinson, Wade M.; and Shaplin, Judson T. "Recent Developments at the Harvard Graduate School of Education." *High School Journal* 5: 242-61; February 1960.

Describes the internship plan at Harvard and two of its outgrowths—the team-teaching internship and apprentice teaching. In addition to recruiting and training teachers, the internship is part of a program designed to stimulate research and encourage innovation in teacher education.

Lawrence, Richard E., and Yff, Joost. "The Inter-University Program in Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 99-100; March, 1965.

Describes the focus of and certain techniques used in the internship seminar in secondary English and social studies teaching which is part of the internship program at Syracuse University.

Leskiw, Russell J. "A Critical Analysis of Teacher Internship Programs in Selected American Teacher Preparation Institutions." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Eugene: University of Oregon, 1966.

An analysis of teaching internship programs of selected institutions in California and Oregon. Data were gathered by means of questionnaires sent to various members of the education profession who were responsible for the education and training of teachers in those states. Areas where improvement was needed in internship programs included financing, organization of internship experiences, supervision, and communication among all persons responsible for the programs.

Livingston, Alfred M. "The Teaching Internship: The Identification and Analysis of Professional Problems of Intern Teachers." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Berkeley: University of California, 1962.

In a study of a group of sixty secondary school interns enrolled in the graduate internship program in teacher education at Berkeley in 1959, it was found that interns were most concerned with problems they experienced in teaching techniques and in the classroom situation, while their school supervisors were more concerned with problems the interns evidenced in personal qualities and relationships. University subject matter supervisors noted the interns' difficulties in all the aforementioned areas and also with the school milieu, while university intern supervisors expressed more concern with the personal and social problems of the interns.

McCuskey, Dorothy. "Critical Commentary." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 92-94.

Warns against rushing into action programs before minimal levels of competency are established for the beginning teacher. The wide variety of internship programs indicates the need for developing research-tested principles and theory on which to base new programs.

McIntosh, J. R. "A Pilot Study of a Form of Internship in Teacher Education." *Canadian Education and Research Digest* 2: 115-27; June 1962.

Reports of a small pilot study conducted by the University of British Columbia. Findings reveal no significant differences in teaching performance between a controlled group of students on a regular fifth-year teaching program and an experimental group of intern teachers. The experiment did indicate that graduate students benefit from reduced lecture time and more individual responsibility for learning in the professional subject fields.

Meade, Edward J., Jr. "Student Teaching: Many a Slip Between the Cup and the Lip." *Research and Professional Experiences in Teacher Education.* Bulletin No. 20. (Edited by Emmitt D. Smith and Aleyene C. Haines.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1963. pp. 25-34.

Advance a proposal of an internship wherein the student is a full-time, paid member of a teaching team, supervised by a teacher supervisor who would also teach the practicum course. In such a situation, the college personnel would work primarily with the teacher-supervisors and as consultants to the cooperating schools.

Miller, Ralph M., and Wulk, Jerry E. "A New Approach at UCLA: Secondary Teaching Internships." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 300-302; September 1965.

This report of the processes and procedures utilized in the preservice summer program of a beginning internship on the secondary level had as its stated purpose to show how such a program may bring about worthwhile changes in regular secondary teacher education programs. This was a fifth-year internship program with 85 percent of the admitted interns registered in academic departments rather than the School of Education. Strengths of the professional work set up for the interns for the summer preceding the actual internship are stressed.

Miner, George D. "A Teacher Intern Program." *School Executive* 74: 48-49; September 1954.

Outlines the purposes and initial planning involved in California's first internship program—an experiment to improve on the practice teaching program at San Francisco State College. The original program was designed to test the effectiveness of providing increased supervision during the intern's clinical experience.

Moore, Elenora H., and Sabath, Mildred R. "Team Teaching in Teacher Education." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 86-91.

Since the effect of team teaching as an introduction to the profession has not been proved, it should be applied to internship programs only after careful analysis of existing structures of school personnel. Roles and hierarchical relationships of team members in internship programs should be clearly defined.

Neal, Charles D. "Five Years' Experience with Internships." *Nation's Schools* 55: 46-50; May 1955.

Defines teacher, supervisor, and administrative internship programs and the roles of the cooperating public schools, interns, and university supervisors. The author believes that internship programs should be initiated by the public school administrator and that the university should enter into agreements only with those schools that release master teachers for supervision since the success or failure of a graduate intern rests with the public school person in charge of the intern's program.

———. "Internship in Teacher Training." *Education* 71: 183-89; November 1950.

Outlines the origin, development, and objectives of the nine-month internship program at Southern Illinois University. The teaching internship program is designed to prepare graduate students to become master teachers at either the elementary or secondary level.

Pogue, Betty J. "Elementary Internship Program Offered at Indiana State University for Conversion Students." *Teachers College Journal* 36: 207-208; March 1965.

Describes an internship program instituted in 1965 at Indiana State University for secondary school teachers who wish to become certified in elementary education in Indiana. Interns are hired as elementary teachers in schools around the state on the basis of a Limited Elementary Teacher Certificate and participate in the program for sixteen weeks.

Powell, Arthur G., and Shaplin, Judson T. "A Comparison of Internship Programs." *Journal of Teacher Education* 15: 175-83; June 1964.

Presents a historic overview of the development of the internship since 1895, including a comparison of the programs of the thirties with present-day internship programs. Because of the highly concentrated nature of present programs, the author feels the internship must be considered as only the beginning of professional training.

Radcliffe, Shirley. *Teacher Education—Fifth-Year Programs: A Selected Bibliography.* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin 1959, No. 9. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1959.

The bibliography covers the period from 1940 to 1959.

Rex, Roland G. *A Theory of the Internship in Professional Training.* Educational Dissertation Series, No. 7. East Lansing: College of Education, Michigan State University, 1964.

Examines the use of the internship concept in the preparation of professional practitioners in several fields, including teacher education. Analysis of various internship patterns reveals that all provide the intern with the opportunity to establish self-identification and identification of his role and of his community in a professional setting. Maintains that efficiency of internship as a unique kind of experience in the training of teachers as well as other professions must be substantiated by research.

Rosenthal, Lester H. "Professional Laboratory Experiences for Secondary School Teachers in a Fifth-Year Internship Program: An Exploratory Study of the Teaching Fellowship Program at Yeshiva University with Recommendations." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

In the Yeshiva teaching internship program, college graduates with no prior professional training undertake two semesters of compensated internship teaching. This study focused on the direct experiences provided the interning teachers and was intended for faculty use in improving the curriculum of the fifth year. Guidelines on the functioning of laboratory experiences were developed, and those experiences provided by the program were compared with the guidelines.

Ryan, Kevin. "The Teaching Intern. A Sociological Stranger." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 185-91; Summer 1966.

Reports a program study conducted by Stanford University on problems that interns encountered during their internship. Discusses the many sociological and psychological conflicts the interns encountered with the staff and school community and offers some alternatives to remedy these problems.

Saxe, Richard W. "Evaluating the Breakthrough Programs." *Journal of Teacher Education* 16: 202-209; June 1965.

An evaluation of the effects that MAT programs supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education (and later the Education Program of the Ford Foundation) had on the teacher education institutions participating, on teacher education curricula, and on the profession in general. The Fund's support of these thirty-nine programs is cited as being a major impetus to the "internship idea."

Shea, Joseph J. "An Assessment of an Experimental Elementary Teacher Education Program." (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Ann Harbor: University of Michigan, 1964.

Comparison of two groups of elementary teachers, one composed of women prepared under typical four-year teacher education programs and the other of women prepared under a five-year internship program. All were in their first to third years of professional teaching. Teachers prepared in the internship program did not differ significantly from the others on any variable examined, the variables being rating of total teaching performance, adjustment to the teaching assignment, rating of the specifics of teaching techniques, and measures of attitudes towards school and teachers as seen by pupils.

Shibles, Mark. "Student Teaching in Teams: The University of Maine." *New Developments, Research, and Experimentation in Professional*

Laboratory Experiences. Bulletin No. 22. (Edited by Curtis E. Nash.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1964.

Abstract of a clinic presentation made at the 1964 Convention of the Association for Student Teaching. Describes a program involving teams of two graduate interns, two student teachers, and an experienced teacher working in six secondary and four elementary schools. This experimental program was financed by the Ford Foundation.

Sleeper, William R. "The Internship." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. (Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 71-74.

Surveys existing internship programs and presents a summary of trends. Concludes that the internship-type program is rapidly becoming the focal point in teacher preparation.

Smith, Elmer R. "The Brown Plan for Teacher Education." *High School Journal* 5: 283-93; February 1960.

Reports the reasons for the development of the objectives of the Brown Plan—a fifth-year program which includes either an internship or apprenticeship training, according to the needs of the student. The program is structured to provide interns for area schools on a semiannual promotion system.

Smith, Max S. "A Cooperative Elementary Teacher Training Program." *Junior College Journal* 37: 27-29; October 1966.

Describes an undergraduate internship program in elementary education wherein students completing the first two years at one of eight Michigan community colleges attended summer sessions at Michigan State University, students teach for six months during their junior year, and then become paid interns for the fourth year. Interns take some evening courses and receive their baccalaureate degree from Michigan State University following their internship year. Preparing to teach under this program is less costly financially, and differences noted in students include a larger proportion of men and older married women and of students with less advantageous social backgrounds.

Stabler, Ernest, editor. *The Education of the Secondary School Teacher.* Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1962.

Traces the development of MAT programs at a number of large universities, including Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Oberlin, Chicago, Wesleyan, and Stanford, and describes the internship provisions in those programs.

———. "The Internship Plan at Wesleyan University." *New Developments, Research, and Experimentation in Professional Laboratory Experiences.* Bulletin No. 22. (Edited by Curtis E. Nash.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1964. p. 119.

Abstract of a speech delivered at the 1964 Convention of the Association for Student Teaching. The two-year MAT program with a salaried internship in the second year is outlined. The objective of the program is to improve the quality of teacher education by allowing the schools and the University to enter into a genuine partnership. The program is intended to provide the student with adequate experiences under realistic conditions which will offer a highly effective means of inducting promising students into the profession.

______. "The Interns' Report." *Design for Leadership: The Administrative Internship in Secondary School Improvement.* Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, a department of the National Education Association, 1964.

Presents the findings gleaned from logs, evaluation conferences, and questionnaires of administrative interns over a three-year period. Deals with the activities, attitudes, and working relationships of the interns.

______. "The Master of Arts in Teaching Idea." *Educational Record* 41: 224-29; July 1960.

Traces the educational philosophy which led to the development of the MAT programs. Contrasts the one-year internship program at Wesleyan, emphasizing the administrative flexibility possible in setting up MAT programs.

Stenberg, Daniel. "The Life of a Novice Teacher." *Clearing House* 36: 81-82; October 1961.

An intern tells what life was like during the first semester of full-time internship in a public school. Offers some of the problems and conflicts that all interns face sooner or later.

Stephenson, Harold H. *Internship in Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers.* Bulletin of the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Vol. 8, No. 3. Laramie: University of Wyoming, 1950.

Contrasts the actual findings of a survey of forty internship programs for secondary school teachers with an ideal internship program as expressed by a jury of twenty-four teacher education specialists. Proposes an outline for the establishment of an internship program at the University of Wyoming.

Stiles, Lindley J. "Internships for Prospective High School Teachers Being Trained in Universities." *Journal of Educational Research* 39: 664-67; May 1946.

Report of a study to determine the extent to which the internship is being used in secondary teacher education programs and to ascertain how internship programs are administered. Only 25 percent of seventy-one universities surveyed reported provisions for internship programs, although 97 percent of thirty-one authorities questioned believed that universities should provide for an internship experience.

Stiles, Lindley J., and others. *Teacher Education in the United States.* New York: Ronald Press, 1960. Chapter 14, "The Internship," pp. 319-37.

Describes the professionalization, history, and emerging features of the internship for teachers. The problems and the promise of the internship in teacher education are discussed.

Stone, James C. "Fall Conference of the California Council on Teacher Education." *California Schools* 28: 162-79; April 1957.

Suggests that all institutions in California adopt a coordinated program of professional courses integrated with observation, participation, student teaching, and internship. Internship programs should supplement student

teaching, not replace it. Brief descriptions of internship programs at Claremont College, San Diego State College, University of Southern California, San Francisco State College, and the University of California, Berkeley, are included.

———. "The Internship in Teacher Education: A Symposium." *California Journal of Secondary Education* 32: 486-512; December 1957.

Includes reports of the various approaches taken by institutions in California in the organization and administration of cooperative internship programs. Presents a strong case for the use of the internship as a part of a multiple program of teacher education within each institution.

———. "Twenty-Nine Million for What?" *CTA Journal* 60: 25-28; October 1964.

Reviews effects of the experimental "breakthrough" programs sponsored by the Ford Foundation in an effort to improve teacher education. Most of the programs culminated in an MAT degree and incorporated some form of teaching internship. The main value of such programs has been to foster flexibility in teaching habits and experimentation in developing teacher education programs.

Stone, James C., and Robinson, Clark N. *The Graduate Internship Program in Teacher Education.* University of California Publications in Education, Vol. 15. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965.

Report of the first six years of experience with the graduate internship program at Berkeley. Includes a detailed description of recruitment and selection procedures, curriculum, and follow-up data on mobility and permanency of interns.

Thompson, Glen S. "The Development of an Internship Program." *Teacher Education Journal* 4: 57-63; September 1942.

Reports of early attempts by New York University School of Education to establish an internship program for its graduates to help them better adjust to specific teaching situations. The program was initiated jointly by the State Education Department, the University, and the public schools. At the time it was hoped that the internship plan would become a normal part of the preparatory experience of teachers on a statewide basis.

Tope, D. E. "The Teaching Internship in the Omaha Public Schools." *School and Society* 52: 237-39; September 21, 1940.

Covers such areas as (a) the requirements for internship eligibility, (b) the time requirements of internship, (c) the internship rating program, and (d) problems faced during internship.

Vander Werf, Lester. "A Unique Intern Program." *Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal.* Report of the Columbus Conference. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1963. pp. 404-11.

Describes the internship program at Northeastern University—an adaptation of the cooperative plan to teacher education. Summarizes and illustrates the various methods used in evaluation of the program. Included are an outline of a typical study-duty log, individual intern responses, and follow-up studies on the reactions of all persons involved in the program.

Walsh, William J. "Internship in Relation to Community Colleges." *Teacher Education and the Public Schools.* Fortieth Yearbook. Edited by Charles M. Clarke.) Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1961. pp. 81-85.

Describes efforts being made in Michigan to hold students in teacher preparation programs who might otherwise be forced to drop out for financial reasons. The experimental five-year elementary internship program uses the community college as its base of operation.

Walton, John. "The Scholar-Teacher." *High School Journal* 5: 294-300; February 1960.

Recommends that secondary schools seek to employ teachers of high intellectual capacity and leave nonteaching activities to specialists in education. Fifth-year programs for liberal arts graduates are making a good attempt to prepare subject matter-oriented new teachers. Includes a description of the internship program at The Johns Hopkins University.

Washton, Nathan S. "Educating the Science Intern Teacher." *School Science and Mathematics* 64: 488-90; June 1964.

Presents a model science intern program based on the graduate program at the University of Hawaii. The author believes that the internship provides a necessary gradual introduction into the profession; however, to be effective, both the intern supervisor and college coordinator should have had experience as master science teachers prior to entering the internship program.

White, Kenneth E. "A Plan for Student Interns in Teaching Positions." *American School Board Journal* 146: 9-10; April 1963.

Cites the advantages enjoyed by one school district participating in the elementary internship program of Central Michigan University.

Whitelaw, John B. "The Most Important Breakthrough in the History of Teacher Education: The Teaching Internship." *TEPS Newsletter* 8: 3; March 1965.

The paid teaching internship has become the means of solving one of the most difficult chronic problems in teacher education: how to make it possible for public school systems to fulfill their indispensable clinical role in the preservice education of teachers.

______. "Teacher Preparation—Five Targets for the Next Ten Years." *School Life* 46: 11-13; January-February 1964.

Briefly reviews outcomes of fifth-year programs of preservice teacher education since World War II. Suggests five targets for teacher preparation for the next ten years: (a) a four-plus-one (four undergraduate years plus a fifth deferred and cumulative year) requirement for full certification for all elementary and secondary school teachers, (b) a paid teaching internship in the fourth year of undergraduate work, (c) integrating undergraduate pro-

fessional content into the internship, (d) professional status and extra pay for supervisors of interns, and (e) placing responsibility on subject matter departments for subject matter competence of each teacher-in-training.

Wilbur, Diane A. "The Master of Arts in Teaching Intern." *Clearing House* 36: 232-34; December 1961.

Reviews practices and procedures of schools that offer crash programs in educational training to meet prescribed state certification. The intern will earn enough credits to be certified, as well as a master of arts in teaching degree. The MAT internship is an attempt to bring subject-oriented men and women into the field of high school teaching.

Wilson, Charles F. "Student Teachers Adversely Affected by Super Supervision." *Clearing House* 38: 105-107; October 1963.

Warns against rigid supervision of the neophyte teacher. Flexibility on the part of the master teacher is the only way to develop prospective teachers, especially liberal arts graduates who may resent strict supervision.

Wirth, Arthur G. "The Role of Courses in Education at the Level of the Master's Degree." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 40: 104-107; May 1956.

Argues for the development of a graduate program in education consisting of a supervised internship coordinated with graduate course work immediately following the completion of the basic undergraduate program. Proposes a plan consisting of a supervised internship, in-service courses, and problem-centered workshop situations to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Woronoff, Israel. "Teacher Education Programs for Liberal Arts Graduates." *Journal of Teacher Education* 9: 359-62; December 1958.

Report of a survey of fifth-year programs undertaken by Eastern Michigan College, revealing a wide diversity in the organization of courses, the selection of students, and the assignment of credits in such programs. The survey indicates a need for evaluation of these programs (only two out of thirty-eight institutions surveyed were engaged in such evaluation) since the quality varies greatly.

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